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VICTORIA. QUEEN OF ENGLAND.
BORN 1819.

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"LEST WE FORGET."

A Keepsake

FROM THE

NINETEENTH CENTURY.

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By W. T. STEAD.

WITH OVER TWO HUNDRED AND FIFTY PORTRAITS AND MAPS.

PRICE ONE SHILLING.

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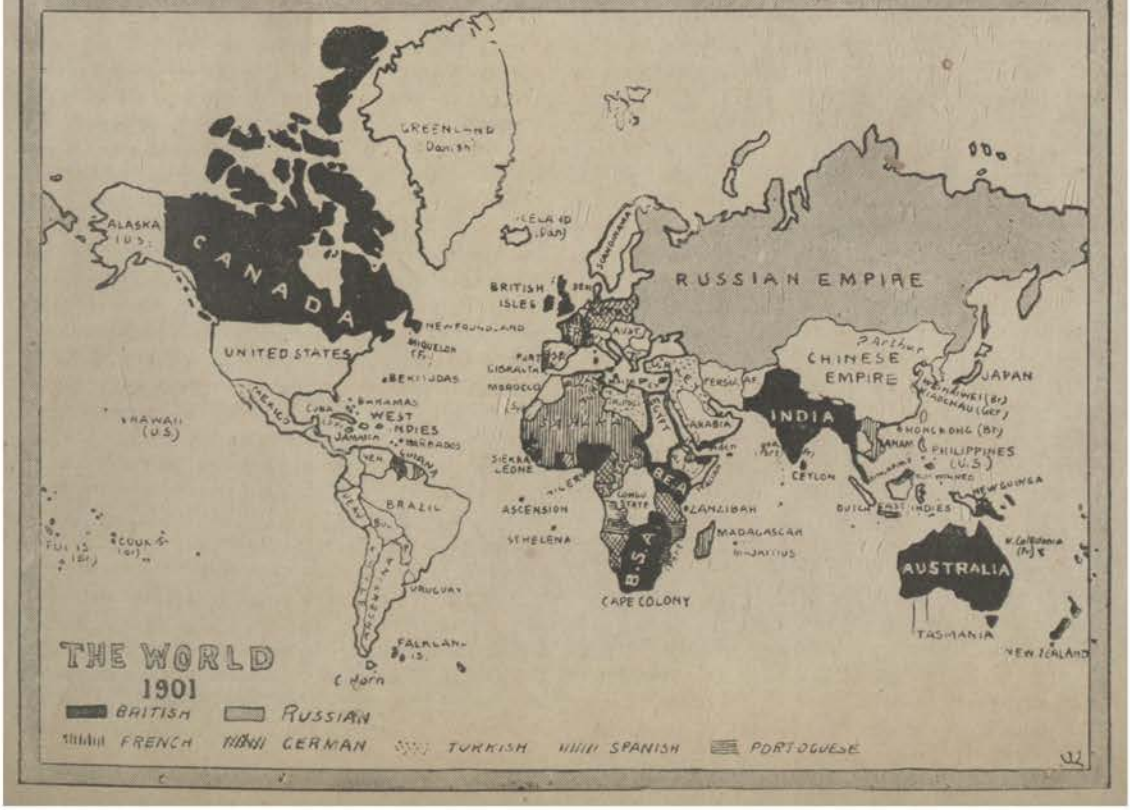
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THE WORLD
1901
BRITISH
RUSSIAN
FRENCH
GERMAN
TURKISH
SPANISH
PORTUGUESE

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

"Backward look across the ages and the Beacon moments see
That, like peaks of some sunk continent, jut through Oblivion's sea."—*Lowell.*

INTRODUCTION.

THE Nineteenth Century is leaving us—will soon have left us, and joined the procession of vanished centuries which stretch back into the infinite distance of the Past. It is therefore possible to form some estimate of its character, to realise the Century as an entity, to speak of what it has brought us, what it has taught us, and what it has taken away. We still stand too near to see its effects in their true perspective; but, now that it is at an end, we can for the first time speak of it as a whole. In common courtesy to a Century which has been with us all our lives, we must pay it the compliment of a formal Adieu.

It would be curious and instructive to have a series of nineteen appreciations of the nineteen centuries of the Christian era written at the close of each, and to compare the estimate of the modern historian with the judgment of those who stood at the bier of the Century whose character they endeavoured to sum up. It is safe to say that in very few instances would the contemporary chronicler be in accord with those who are in a position to look back upon the Past from the distance of even one hundred years. The most conspicuous and commonplace illustration of this is afforded by the contrast between what a cultured Roman essayist would have written A.D. 101 on the most important events of the preceeding hundred years and the estimate which is universally accepted to-day as to the comparative value of the contributions of the First Century to the progress of the world and the evolution of civilization. To the Roman, to whom the Forum was the centre of the world, the First Century must have seemed chiefly famous for the foundation of the Empire under Augustus, who died A.D. 14, and its consolidation and extension, which despite tragic and horrible interludes in the reigns of Tiberius and Nero, went on steadily, until it may be said to have culminated at the close of the Century in the triumphs of Trajan. Yet to us moderns the "beacon moment" of the First Century was the crucifixion, on a hill named Calvary, on the outskirts of Jerusalem, of a certain obscure Nazarene, Jesus, the son of a carpenter, who was executed on a charge of blasphemy. It was impossible for a Roman reviewer in 101 to have had sufficient insight to perceive that this insignificant item in the criminal records of an Asiatic province contained the germ of the life of the world for the long centuries that were to come. To him the mere suggestion of the possibility of such a thing would have been as the raving of a madman. Yet it happened, after all, to be the truth. As it was then, so it may be to-day. In the Thirty-eighth Century, the estimate which posterity will form of the Nineteenth will probably differ as widely from that which we are forming to-day as the estimate of the First Century formed, let us say by Gibbon, would differ from that of Tacitus.

This is the more probable because the men of to-day, like the Century of which they form a part, are immersed in matter. The characteristic of the Century, palpable and obvious to all men, is that of enormous, unprecedented material prosperity. Its greatest triumphs have been gained in the material sphere. The supreme outcome of its labours is the production of a quick-firing gun capable of pumping tons of explosive shell over four or five miles of country at the rate of twelve shots per minute. It is the Century of the Locomotive, of the Steamship, of the Dynamo. It is a mechanical Century, its hundred years are but as a pedestal for the Man with the Hammer. We have lived these last hundred years in the

smithy of Vulcan rather than on the heights of Olympus. It is the age of Tubal Cain. But it is not in the steamship or the railway, but "in the thoughts that shake mankind," that centuries are apt to find their best title to posthumous fame. And it is difficult to say at this moment by what "mankind-shaking thought" the Nineteenth Century will be chiefly remembered when it is gone. Certainly it is to the realm of thought that we must go to seek for things that endure. "For the things which are seen are temporal, but the things which are not seen are eternal."

But the unfortunate writer of contemporary chronicles is not gifted with a capacity to see the invisible.* Into the wide field of the world, torn by the ploughshare of war and harrowed by the endless struggle for existence, we see the Sower cast huge handfuls of the Thoughts of Man. Some may be tares, some good grain, some mere chaff and dross. We who watch the process may speculate as to the crop. But only those who come after us, and see the field when the spring has come and the good seed has sprung up, can form any estimate of the vitality of the seed. They also will be able to see whether among other seeds the Sower threw out this Century an acorn from which may spring an oak for the shelter of future generations. Has the Nineteenth Century flung into the world-furrow a germ no larger than a grain of mustard seed, "which, indeed, is the least of seeds, but when it is grown up becometh a tree, so that the birds of the air come and lodge in the branches thereof?" Who can say? Each of us may have our own notions. Personally I am inclined to believe that the future Historian will discover in the obscure and fitful glimpses which this Century has afforded us of the possibility of a scientific demonstration of the persistence of the individual after death, a more important contribution to human progress than has been made by all the mechanicians—ecclesiastic included. But we see so "dimly in the present what is small and what is great," that no one can speak with confidence, not even as to another man's speculation as unthinkable and absurd.

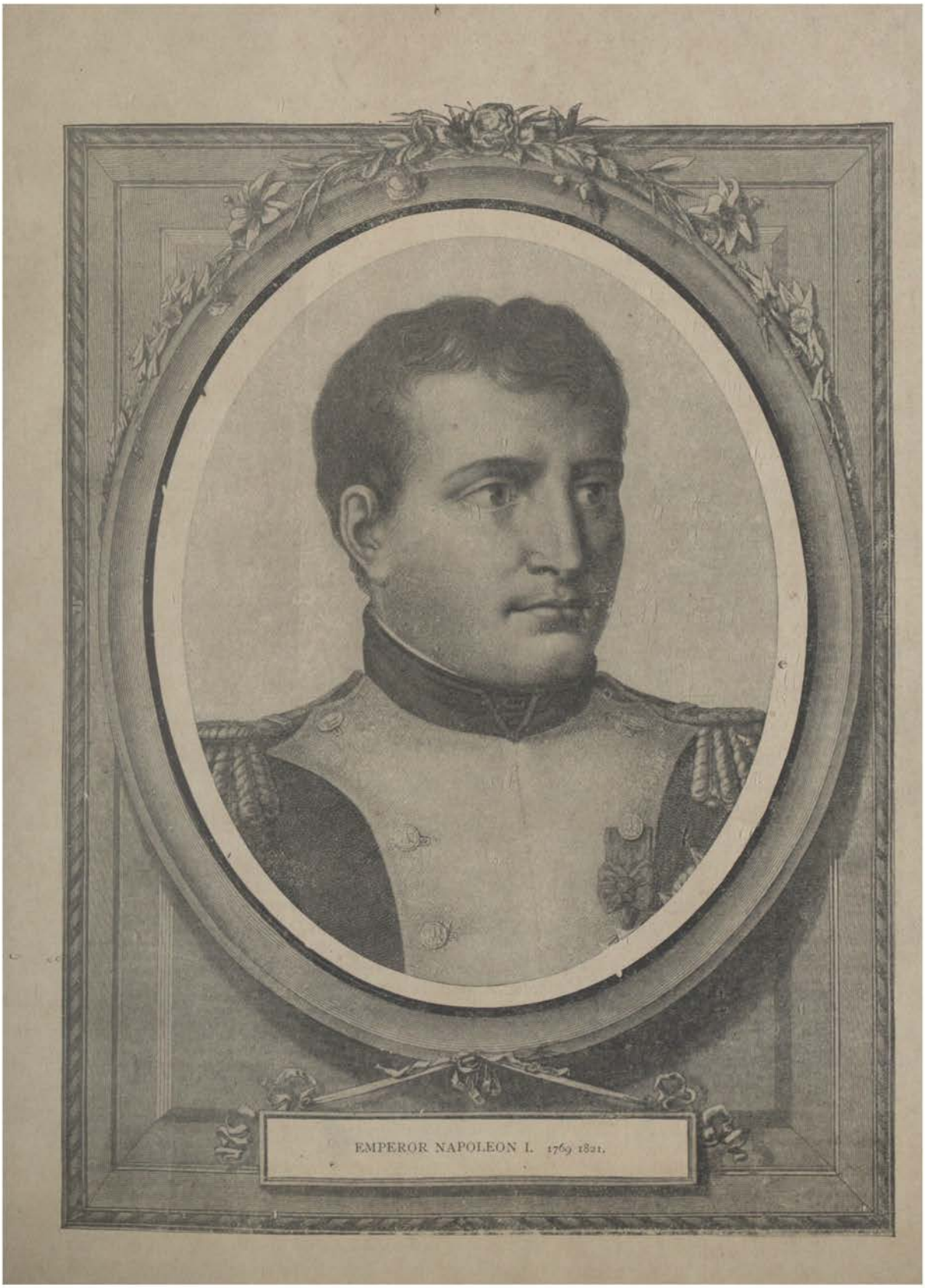
If the experience of the Past is to be any guide to the probabilities of the Future, the Nineteenth Century will be remembered more by the teachings of its moralists than by the exploits of its inventors, the triumphs of its conquerors, or the discoveries of its scientists. We may account for it as we please, but the names which the World bears for ever in her memory are for the most part the names of men who taught truths as to the conduct of life, rather than the names of those who taught how to do things. The Philosopher outlives the Artificer, the Apostle is remembered when the Soldier is forgotten. The Thinker is had in grateful remembrance when the names of Monarch and of Statesman are consigned to the dustbin of History. No doubt the diligent rummager among the tablets of Babylon can exhume the names of many rulers great and famous in their day. But although we may use the printing-press to perpetuate in type the recovered history of their achievements, that will not cause them to be remembered. The memory of man is somewhat like Jotunheim in the old Norse mythology, in which no one was permitted to remain who did not in something excel all other men, and the particular form of excellence which Man cherishes most is the excellence of the Teacher who deals with the eternal problem of the right ordering of life. We hear a good deal about the *bête humaine*, and we are painfully reminded from time to time of the truth of the doctrine of total depravity. But beast though man may be, shapen in sin and conceived in iniquity, he manifests at least this trace of his original Divine ancestry that he remembers best those who tell him of his duty to God and Man. The books of which he takes most care are his Sacred Books, and this is equally true of heathen people as of Christian.

The Century that produces a Moses, a Confucius, a Zoroaster, a Buddha, a Socrates, a Paul, a Mohamet, a Shakespeare, or a Goethe needs no other title to be admitted to a permanent place in the memory of man. "Humanity," said Pascal, "is a man who never dies and always learns." But it is also a Man with a most healthy faculty of forgetting. Carlyle once declared that in days to come Napoleon's chief chance of being remembered would be because he was a contemporary of Goethe. It sounds paradoxical. But who would remember the name of Keng Wang, a mighty Emperor in his day, were it not that in his reign lived Confucius? Has the Nineteenth Century produced such a man? It is the answer to that question which will decide its place in History.

* The Nineteenth Century has afforded a classic instance of the inability of the most highly placed officials to foresee events on the very eve of their occurrence. On the afternoon of July 5th, 1870, Lord Granville, entering on his duties at the Foreign Office, was informed by Mr. Hammond, permanent Under-Secretary, that "in all his experience he had never known so great a lull in foreign affairs." At midnight Mr. Layard telegraphed to London the choice of Prince Leopold by the Spanish Ministry. The same afternoon Lord Lyons received the information from the Duc de Gramont, with an intimation that France will use her whole strength to prevent the election, and a request for the co-operation of England in warding off this danger to the peace of Europe. It was the beginning of the Franco-German conflict which culminated in the capitulation of Paris.

No previous Century ever produced more books and more newspapers. The output of the last year of the Nineteenth Century in printed sheets probably exceeds the total print of all the centuries that have intervened since Gutenburg first used moveable type in Mainz. The printed leaves do not wither quite as rapidly as the leaves of the hedgerow, but the bulk of printed matter according to the old saying, "is, as the grass of the field, which to-day is, and to-morrow is cast into the oven." Hundreds of thousands of bound volumes have been issued this Century; will a single hundred survive till 2001? Possibly; but no one can name the hundred. It is with books as with nuggets of gold in alluvial diggings. The miner patiently washes a ton of dirt, well content if after his toil he should find a single nugget of gold in his pan. Humanity, Pascal's man who never dies, is not less patient. The stream of Time is ever washing the pay-dirt of literature in the cradle of our libraries, and at the end of a century the nuggets will begin to appear. If by some divine prescience any one was to be permitted to foresee and print the names of what in 2001 would be regarded as the Hundred Best Books of the Nineteenth Century he would be smothered by contemptuous laughter. Certain it is that many of the little tin gods of to-day will be rudely abased. For in the world of letters it is as it is written in the Magnificat: "He hath scattered the proud in the imagination of their hearts. He hath put down the mighty from their seats, and exalted them of low degree." John Bunyan, the Baptist tinker, stands higher in our estimate of the writers of the Seventeenth Century than all the fine gentlemen of culture who imagined that the alembic of their style would preserve their works for the admiration of posterity. And as it has been, so it will be world without end.

Hence it is extremely difficult, not to say impossible, to sum up with any degree of accuracy the character of the Nineteenth Century. All that we can do is to note what appear on the surface to the observer close at hand to be its leading characteristics, its foremost men, its more valuable contributions to the world movement, without venturing to dogmatise as to the yet-to-be revealed significance of influences, tendencies and individualities which are at work below the surface.



EMPEROR NAPOLEON I. 1769 1821.

CHAPTER I.

SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CENTURY.

If Mankind gives the highest place to the Religious Teacher, it must be admitted that the aboriginal savage in man asserts himself by according an almost equally lofty position to the Warrior. It is not quite true as the poet says—

> "Lo over-shadowing all the past
> The conqueror stalks sublime,"

for the Founders of Religions are much more conspicuous than the Conquerors of the World. But the soldiers have succeeded in stamping their names in letters of blood illumined with fire upon most centuries. The Nineteenth is no exception to the rule. In Napoleon, whose career culminated and crashed in the first fifteen years of this century, we have a prodigy of war second to none in the annals of the human race. In the Pantheon of Warriors he holds his own with the foremost.

Alexander, Cœsar, Napoleon, a triple incarnation of Mars, are among the Demigods of Mankind. The Nineteenth Century which, in its opening years saw Napoleon at the zenith of his tremendous fortunes, witnessed at its close an astonishing revival of interest in his memory. This interest manifested itself in opposite directions. In France it revealed itself, chiefly in destructive and depreciatory criticism; in England and the United States by a strong tendency to hero worship. The Chicago boy, who went to the Invalides because he "reckoned Napoleon was the smartest man the Old World produced," summed up an estimate which American periodical literature has somewhat diligently fostered. Lord Rosebery's "Napoleon in St. Helena" may be regarded as the latest illustration of the renewed interest in "The Scavenger of God."

Seven days before the Eighteenth Century closed, Napoleon had an almost miraculous escape from destruction by an infernal machine which destroyed forty houses and slew many men, but failed to take his life. The new Century was not seven months old before he concluded the Concordat with the Pope, the most notable sign of the extent to which, after years of violent hostility to Rome, the Children of the Revolution found it necessary to place themselves in good relations with the Successor of St. Peter. When the new Century opened, the War-God was in a pacific mood. In July Napoleon made peace with the Pope; in October he made peace first with Russia, and then with Turkey. Six months later he made peace with England. Alas! the gates of the temple of Janus were not destined to remain long closed. Napoleon, who was appointed First Consul for life in August, 1802, was at war again with England in May, 1803, a war which was not to end until twelve years later, when the great world-conqueror sought refuge on board the *Bellerophon*. Between 1803 and 1815, the Century exhibits in succession the bloody scenes of Trafalgar, Austerlitz, Jena, Eylau, Moscow, Leipsic, Waterloo. The First Consul became Emperor of France and King of Italy. From his island prison in Elba, he stepped back to his throne in France; he staked and lost his all at Waterloo. If, as Lord Rosebery says, "War is the Gambling of the Gods," never did mere mortal plunge so heavily as Napoleon. The loser paid. For six years he lingered a captive on the island rock of St. Helena. Europe breathed more freely when he died in 1821; but death did not end his magic might. Nineteen years later his ashes were solemnly interred amid great national demonstrations in the Church of the Invalides. In 1848, the glamour of his glories made his nephew President of France, and the promptings of the precedents of his reign led the President to declare himself Emperor in 1852. From 1852 to 1871 the shade of Napoleon the Great may be said to have dominated Europe through Napoleon the Little. Not until the terrible exorcism of Sedan did the uneasy spirit of Napoleon cease to possess unhappy France. Living and dead, Napoleon, more than any other, is surely the Man of the Nineteenth Century.

But it would be unfair to regard Napoleon merely as the incarnate God of War. In the last year of the Eighteenth Century he ordered the compilation of the Code which bears his name. Four years later the Commission on which he served, and to which he rendered no

small assistance, presented the "Code Civil des Français," which has been a monument more lasting than brass to the memory of the man whose name it bears. We, in England, who to this day cannot boast of a Code, regard with admiring envy the fiery and well-directed energy which provided France and all the Latin countries with the Code Napoleon. It was promulgated in France in 1804, in Italy in 1805, and in Portugal in 1809, by will of its author. It has since been adopted voluntarily by other countries. The fame of Napoleon as author of the Code will probably outlive his renown as the victor of Austerlitz. Justinian, who drew up a Code for the Roman Empire in the sixth century, is remembered for his Pandects and his Statutes by millions who are utterly unacquainted with any of the military episodes of his long and eventful reign. It is this combination of the great Lawgiver and great Warrior which distinguishes soldiers like Charlemagne and Napoleon from such purely destructive conquerors as Tamerlane and Attila. Even the most decisive of victories gained in the field does not suffice to immortalise the victor unless he unites to the prowess of the Warrior who destroys the genius of the Legislator and the Statesman who constructs.

The French Revolution torpedoed the Feudalism of Europe, but without Napoleon it would have exploded aimlessly. Napoleon was at once the steel case and the driving force which directed the revolutionary explosive to its goal. The old craft was patched up after the torpedo had burst, and kept floating for some years. But Napoleon had dealt it a death blow. It expired in 1848. Its shadow still haunts Austria; and Junkerdom, still unmindful of Jena, resents the triumph of the modern idea. Nevertheless, it has triumphed. The principles of the French Revolution have made the tour of the world. France wrecked herself in the excess of her propagandist enthusiasm. But her sacrifice enabled her to dominate the Century.

Even the great turn of the Wheel of Fortune which displaced France from the headship of Europe was largely due to the influence of the Napoleonic ideal. To the supremacy of Germany the first Napoleon contributed a fact, the third Napoleon a doctrine. The overthrow of Prussia on the battlefield of Jena and the restrictions imposed by the conqueror on the number of troops to be maintained under arms, led to that system of short and universal military service which became so irresistible a weapon in the capable hands of Von Moltke for the defeat of Austria, and afterwards for the conquest of France. More potent than the short-service system in bringing about the unification of Germany was the enthusiasm for the doctrine of Nationality. This doctrine the third Napoleon took under his special patronage. He gave it a baptism of blood on the plains of Italy. In the hands of Prince Bismarck it was one of the most effective means that led to the proclamation of the King of Prussia as German Emperor in the Palace of Louis Quatorze. Alike by direct action, and by no less direct reaction, so potent has been their influence upon the history of Europe, that the Nineteenth Century may in the Old World be regarded as the Century of France and Napoleon.

So far as Europe is concerned. But Europe is not all the world—it is indeed every year becoming comparatively a less important portion of the world. Outside Europe, the most distinctive and remarkable feature of the Nineteenth Century has been the immense development of the English-speaking race. That race, unhappily torn into two sections by the infatuated "loyalism" of the Eighteenth Century, has developed with extraordinary rapidity. The British Empire began the Century by destroying the Parliament of Ireland. It has closed it by trampling out of existence the Parliaments of the South African Republics. Between January 1st, 1801, when the Act of Union came into existence, to the present date, it has expanded its territory far in excess of its capacity for government, until now it is responsible for the protection of from eleven to twelve million square miles of territory, and for the good government of 480,000,000 of the human races. But of these teeming millions 340,000,000 are coloured helots, who are taxed and policed, but who are sternly denied any right to responsible self-government. The English-speaking, self-governing population of the Empire does not exceed 60,000,000, of whom 40,000,000 are in the United Kingdom and Ireland, 5,500,000 in Canada, and 5,000,000 in Australia and New Zealand. These represent the White Man. The other 340,000,000 represent the White Man's Burden. That this burden is in excess of his strength is nowhere more frankly admitted than in quarters where any suggestion that it should not be increased is denounced as incipient treason. The Navy League, to take only one example, devotes itself to the demonstration of the fact that although we have increased our Navy Estimates in the present Administration from eighteen to twenty-seven millions a year, our first line of defence is utterly incapable of performing its elementary duties. The African war has demonstrated even more conclusively that the army is absurdly unfit to meet the demands that may at any moment be made upon it. The resources of the War Office were strained

almost to a breaking point, in a period of profound peace, merely to combat 50,000 undisciplined farmers. What would have happened if even a third-rate military power had chosen the same moment to threaten any of our innumerable interests it is not pleasant to contemplate. Our wealth is more capable of bearing further drafts than either army or navy, but what is money without men? And it is precisely this all-essential element of capable men, competent to govern, that the Empire chiefly lacks. Mr. Gladstone kept repeating this in his later years. He was at his wits' end, he used to say, to find any one competent to be Viceroy of India. Mr. Gladstone may be regarded as a tainted source, but no one will deny the authority of Lord Rosebery. In his recent Rectorial address to the students of Glasgow, he asserts this same fact in the strongest terms. He said: "The first need of our country is a want of men. We want men for all sorts of high positions—first-rate men, if possible; if not, as nearly first-rate as may be. The supply of such men is never excessive; but, as the Empire has increased, so has the demand, and the supply seems to be much less elastic. In other words, the development and expansion of the Empire have produced a corresponding demand for first-rate men, but the supply has remained, at best, stationary. Even among the fixed eternal stars of the public service there is not a sufficient supply of men for the purposes of government. I could name a typical diplomatist, a typical soldier, a typical Civil servant, and could say of each of them that, could he be multiplied by 40, the market would not be glutted." It was impossible for Lord Rosebery to say it, but it must have been present to the mind of all his hearers that the lamentable lack of first-rate men for high positions was nowhere more conspicuous than in the hopeless failure of Her Majesty's Opposition to produce a Leader either business-like or "Thorough."

The white population of the Empire at the beginning of the century was 20,000,000. As it now stands at 60,000,000 it has nearly trebled itself in the course of the century. This rate of increase is, however, thrown into the shade by the immense advance of the United States, whose advent, as the greatest of World Powers is the most conspicuous event of the closing years of the Nineteenth Century. In 1801, the population of the United States was 5,308,000. At the last census taken this year the population was 76,265,000. Of these 8,000,000 probably are blacks. The white man in the United States speaks many languages but his children all speak English. We may take it that, excluding coloured people in both Empire and Republic, the English-speaking white race is now 125,000,000 strong, reigning supreme over native races of various colours, numbering 350,000,000. The English-speaking race, therefore, has outstripped all the races of European stock. If in Europe the Century is that of France and Napoleon, outside Europe it is not less conspicuously the Century of the English-speaking Empire and the Republic.

There is only one other great racial phenomenon worthy to be mentioned beside the immense expansion of the English-speaking world as a distinctive characteristic of the Nineteenth Century. That is the growth of Russia. The last day but one of the eighteenth century, Tsar Alexander I. is said to have put forth the somewhat fantastic suggestion that, instead of deluging Europe with blood, the contending sovereigns should meet at St. Petersburg and settle their differences by single combat, their ministers acting as seconds. The proposal had no result, but it is curious that the Nineteenth Century should have opened and closed with the consideration of proposals by Russian Tsars devised for the avowed object of averting war. At that time, Russia was a comparatively unknown and barbarous region, whose total population was only 36,000,000. To-day, Russia is traversed from end to end by an excellent service of railways; in a year or two all the Eastern and Australian mails will be dispatched by the Siberian railway. Although she has taken a noble initiative, in promoting the most advanced ideas both as to the prevention and the humanizing of war, she is the most formidable military power in the world. Her population is now 131,000,000. In 1856 Russia's natural drift southward, to the Bosphorus, was diverted eastward. The result is that Russia to-day is conterminous with Afghanistan and not many weeks' march from the border of India. She has tamed the Tartars of the Khanates, extirpated their slave trade, carried the railway within striking distance of Herat, and established herself as undisputed sovereign over the whole of Northern Asia. Even more significant is the position which Russia occupies in relation to China. The Twentieth Century must unfold the mysteries which the Future contains. But the Nineteenth leaves us with the suggestion that more and more the two great Asiatic Empires will permeate each other. The two frontiers are conterminous for 8000 miles. Russia has secured a right of way, and a right to protect her way, across Manchuria to Port Arthur. Russia is in a position to exercise pressure at Peking on the land side which will probably secure her ascendency in the counsels of China. Much more serious, however, than the prospect of Russia being as dominant at

MUTSU HITO, EMPEROR OF JAPAN.
BORN 1852.

Peking as at Stamboul is the probability that the Chinese will swarm into Siberia and make the whole line of the great trunk railway a Yellow man's country. Upon this subject, Prince Ukhtomsky expressed himself some two years ago, in terms which, when I published them, seemed exaggerated. But the recent descriptions by eye-witnesses of the extent to which the Chinese have even now occupied the Russian towns on the Amur incline me to think that the Prince did not overstate the danger. Mr. Moltchanoff writing to the *Novoe Vremya*, says:—

"The peaceful conquest of East Siberia by the Chinese," he states, "is an undeniable fact. In the Cossack villages on the Amur there are no Russian artisans: the bricklayers and even the carpenters are Chinese. On the Ussuri the Russian settler dwells on his fruitful estate, but it is the Chinese who reap his harvest for him. At the bazaars in the towns the corn and the hay are Chinese and the meat that is sold is Manchurian or Mongolian; where building is going on the workmen are Chinese; the merchants are Chinese, and in the banks there are Chinese clerks. In business the shop proprietors are Chinese, and in the house the servants are also Chinese. At the gold diggings there are a thousand Chinese workers to fifty Russians. It would be the height of hypocrisy, therefore, in dealing with the colonisation of Eastern Siberia to pass over the Chinese. They have the preponderance of numbers, and they represent an extremely important politico-economical factor."

"To the great and important question, whether these Chinese can be Russianised, people in a position to know answer with a decided negative. The Chinese, they say, are organically unfit for assimilation."

The Chinese and the Russian together will be a difficult nut for any other Power to crack. But as things stand at present, the Twentieth Century seems not unlikely to present this amalgamation for the consideration of the world.

In surveying the history of a Century our attention is naturally attracted by the greatest masses of men. We are compelled to think in continents. It is possible that the future historian may point to the Awakening of the Eastern Nations as the most important—not, perhaps, the most advantageous—piece of work accomplished in the Nineteenth Century. The Awakening of Japan was an affair of yesterday. The Awakening of China has but begun. In the case of Japan it took fifteen years of persistent tapping at the door before the nation woke up. In 1853 an American Commodore opened the ball by proposing a treaty between Japan and the United States. In 1858 the British secured treaty privileges in Japan, which, when they proceeded to exercise them, provoked attacks upon their Embassy and the murder of a British representative. Then ensued "bombardments" (1863), and indemnities, then another bombardment (1864), after which the door was thrown open to foreign trade. But it was not until 1868 that the Japanese suddenly woke up to the significance of the pressure to which they had been subjected. They realised that the Western nations were men like themselves, but invulnerable and irresistible, because they had clad themselves in the panoply of civilisation. Thereupon, with amazing rapidity, they set about assimilating the civilisation of the West. The Daimios revolted in January, 1868; civil war ensued between the Mikado and the Tycoon, in which the latter was defeated, and the ground was cleared for the Mikado to import Western arts and sciences wholesale into Japan. The first railway was opened in 1872. In 1873 they adopted the Western calendar, and, though themselves heathen, they from this time dated all their papers "In the year of our Lord 187–." Two years later they created a Parliament, with two Chambers, and from that day to this they have continuously pressed forward in the same path. They imported the best brains they could buy in Europe and America, and set them to teach the Japanese the best that there was to be learnt in the Western nations. They imported the latest and most improved machinery, they sent their ablest young men to foreign Universities, and they bought the best warships and material of war that money could purchase. The net result of all this was that when they quarrelled with China, they were not only able to reveal themselves before the world as a first-class fighting Power, but by that war they were able to secure funds requisite for purchasing a still larger fleet. The largest battleship in the world has just been launched to their order in Barrow. When the Japanese warships now under order have reached the Yellow Sea, the Japanese, who forty years ago held themselves jealously aloof from all foreign contact, will have so profited by foreign example that with foreign built ironclads and cruisers they will dominate all other fleets in far Eastern waters.

The course of events in China has been slower, and it is doubtful whether the result will be the same. The rapping at the door of China began earlier than in the case of Japan, but the sleeper is still only half awake. As far back as 1755 European trade had been permitted with Canton, but with Canton alone. The year after the battle of Waterloo, Lord

TSZE-HSI, EMPRESS OF CHINA.
Born 1834.

Amherst, sent to try to open the door a little more, failed, owing to the refusal of the British envoy to kotow to the Emperor of China. It was not until 1834 that the issue was first joined between China and Great Britain on the question of the opium traffic. In November of that year an Imperial edict was published prohibiting the importation of opium. This led five years later to the first Opium War, which lasted from 1839 to 1842. In the course of that war we seized Hong Kong, captured, among other places, Amoy, Chusan, Woosung, Shanghai, and Chin-Kiang-foo. At last, in August, 1842, we extorted the consent of the Chinese to the treaty of Nankin, which ceded Hong Kong to us. Five Treaty Ports were created, thus opening still wider the door through which foreign trade could enter China. The net result of our operations was so to weaken the Chinese Government that the Taeping rebellion broke out, in suppressing which General Gordon first achieved his reputation as an organiser of native troops. In 1856, the seizure of the lorcha *Arrow* at Canton led to the second Chinese war, which lasted till 1858, when it was brought to a close by the treaty of Tientsin, which opened the door still wider. Two years later occurred the third Chinese War, in which this time we had the French as allies. We seized the Taku forts, occupied Tientsin, marched on Pekin, and looted the Summer Palace. The Emperor fled from his capital, and his representatives conceded all our demands. The Taeping rebellion was still raging, and was not finally suppressed till 1864. From that date, despite the occurrence of a war with Japan in 1874, a war with France in 1884, and a war with Japan in 1894, the great Empire remained in comparative tranquillity. But in 1898 the seizure by Germany of Kiao Chau led to the occupation of Port Arthur by Russia and of Wei-hai-Wei by Great Britain, while France and Italy pressed demands for similar concessions. Meanwhile, all the Powers were eagerly contending for concessions by which their speculative subjects could make money by promoting companies to construct railways in China. China was regarded as a carcase out of which every one was free to cut and carve what he pleased. Suddenly, to the dismay of the operators, the "dead man" opened his eyes and staggered to his feet. The Boxers, a patriotic volunteer organisation with the watch-word of "China for the Chinese," began an anti-foreign propaganda, which speedily materialised into a policy of massacre. Missionaries fled to the coast. Their unhappy converts were killed. The Boxers cut the railway from Tientsin to Pekin, the European fleet bombarded the Taku forts, and the Chinese Government retaliated by killing the German ambassador and bombarding the Legations. After a prolonged period of suspense a mixed force of Russians, Japanese, British-Indians, Americans, and French rescued the Legations. The Chinese Government fled, Pekin was looted, and vengeance more indiscriminate than just was taken for the outrage on the Legations. The Empress and her Ministers fled to Singan-fu, from whence they are vainly invited to return to Pekin to be executed. There matters remain at present. The European Powers, in a new Concert which seems a little out of tune, are performing together under the conductorship of Count Waldersee. But who can see what the end will be? Not the Nineteenth Century, which leaves the Chinese problem unsolved as a *damnosa hæreditas* to the Twentieth.

How it will work out who can say? But Sir Robert Hart, who is the supreme expert on all Chinese questions, is of opinion that it will work out very ill for the White Man. It is his deliberate opinion that "in the coming Century twenty millions or more of Boxers armed, drilled, disciplined, and animated by patriotic—if mistaken—motives, will make residence in China impossible for foreigners, will take back from foreigners everything foreigners have taken from China, will pay off old grudges with interest, and will carry the Chinese flag and Chinese arms into many a place that even fancy will not suggest to-day, thus preparing for the future upheavals and disasters never even dreamt of. In fifty years' time there will be millions of Boxers in serried ranks and war's panoply at the call of the Chinese Government; there is not the slightest doubt of that! And if the Chinese Government continues to exist, it will encourage—and it will be quite right to encourage, uphold, and develop—this national Chinese movement; it bodes no good for the rest of the world, but China will be acting within its right, and will carry through the national programme. Nothing but partition—a difficult and unlikely international settlement—or a miraculous spread of Christianity in its best form—a not impossible, but scarcely to be hoped for, religious triumph—will defer, will avert this result. Is either the one or the other within the limits of practical politics or practical propagandism? I fear not! And if not—what? Then the lawlessness of the present uprising must be condoned, and the Manchu dynasty supported. To this end it will be made to "lose face" as little as possible; but the trade in arms will not cease, and our sons and grandsons will reap the whirlwind."

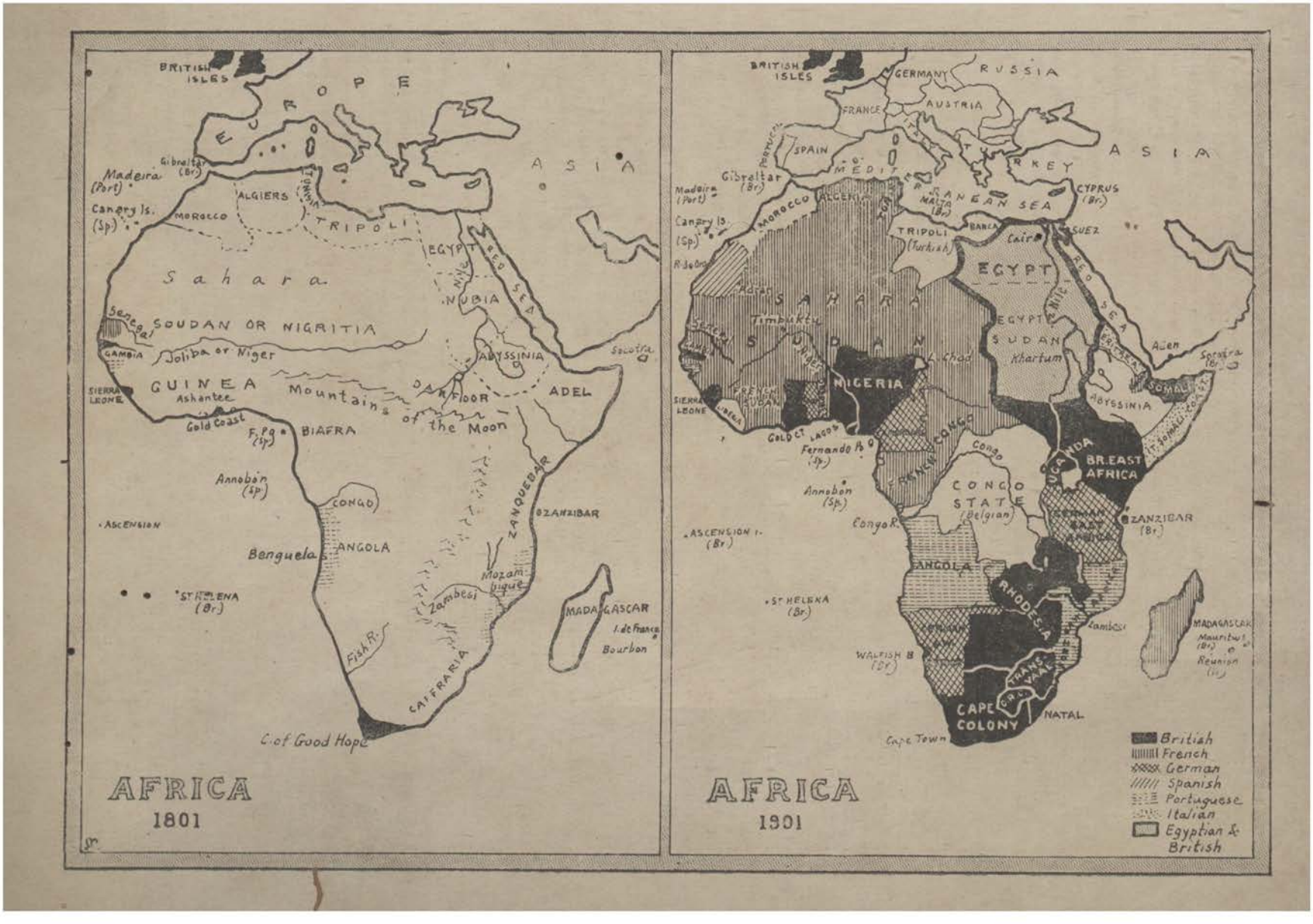
After the Awakening of the Far East must be mentioned the Scramble for Africa. As late as

the sixties African colonies were regarded as little better than an intolerable nuisance. No Power but Portugal and Great Britain had any African possessions, excepting the French colony of Algeria and a few trading stations in the Gulf of Guinea. A Committee of the House of Commons in the early sixties reported solemnly against the acquisition of any African possessions. Even in 1873, when Lord Wolseley went to Coomassie, he merely rushed there and back again, contenting himself with the capture of King Koffee's umbrella. But in the eighties a great change set in. One of the early symptoms of this was the mess that our Foreign and Colonial Offices got into over the question of Angra Pequena. Bismarck, who was not bitten with colonialism, was pestered by the Colonial party to occupy the great tract of wilderness that lies between Bechuanaland and the sea. He asked us civilly if we wanted it. We said we did not know: we would have to ask the Cape. The Cape Government shilly-shallied. Bismarck got impatient; and after a time, in which a good deal of bad temper was developed, Germany took the territory, while we held on to the only port at Walfisch Bay. From that time onward the process of partition proceeded at ever-accelerating rates, until at this moment almost every acre in Africa is in the possession or under the protectorate of one or other European Power.

The Hallucination of the Atlas will probably be the subject for much amused comment on the part of posterity. For the last twenty years of the Century it dominated the peoples and the statesmen of Europe. This strange malady might seem to be more natural to the people of Laputa than to the practical, matter-of-fact European public. But it has raged with unabated fury for a quarter of a century. This hallucination was characterised by a curious confusion of ideas. Its victims imagined that in some mysterious way they became happier and their empire became stronger if they were allowed to take a paint brush and colour the map of other continents with the same pigment which was used to demarcate the boundaries of their own country. The spectacle of a huge portion of the African or Asiatic map being painted red, green, or blue, as the case might be, exercised a soothing effect upon their nervous vanity, and operated as a kind of exhilarating dram upon their national pride. The Hallucinated appear to have imagined that their status among the World Powers depended upon the use of the paint-brush on the Atlas. It was of no avail to point out to them that a vast proportion of the territory which they painted their national colour was utterly worthless—as, for instance, the Desert of Sahara, which France has coloured with the French pigment; nor was it of any use to explain that other territories were worse than useless owing to the inveterate hostility of the inhabitants, whom we could never subjugate nor destroy, of which the South African Republics supply a case in point. It was enough to paint the map the national colour. This delirium was more extraordinary in the case of the British. When other nations coloured their maps, they did so intending that the area so marked should become a preserve for their merchants and manufacturers. But the British *hallucinè* knew perfectly well that his operations with the paint-brush opened the markets of the red-painted regions equally to all his rivals. He had to pay for conquering, policing, and protecting the land; while Germans, Americans, and Belgians, who bore none of the burden, shared equally with himself all the commercial advantages of the new markets. Some glimmering of the folly of the popular hallucination appears to have dawned upon the British public, chiefly owing to the fact that the immediate result of the devastating war waged in South Africa has so far only resulted in American manufacturers snapping up the orders for the renewal of the railway material and rolling-stock destroyed at the cost of the British taxpayer.

The idea that a map-maker with a paint-brush and a box of colours can extend or strengthen an Empire has, however, taken a firm root, and nowhere is the result more palpable than in Africa. It dominates Mr. Rhodes' imagination to such an extent, that to paint the African map red from Cape to Cairo has replaced for him the pious dreams of our ancestors for the conversion of the heathen. The Belgians have also constructed a vast Empire of the Atlas in the valley of the Congo, which may be regarded as a kind of *reductio ad absurdum* of the colour-brush system. Germany has also fallen a victim to the prevailing craze. Extensive regions are coloured as German on the East and West Coast; but in none of them do the German settlers appear to exceed the number of the officials. They do not pay their expenses, and the trade which Germany does with them all put together is a bagatelle compared with the value of German trade with India or Australia.

The only justification for the indefinite pegging out of claims on the part of England is the dread that she might find herself excluded by a rival from prospective markets. The recognition of the principle of the Open Door as a principle of international law in relation to all the unoccupied regions of the world would remove that dread. Possibly the delusion will be dispelled by the influence of

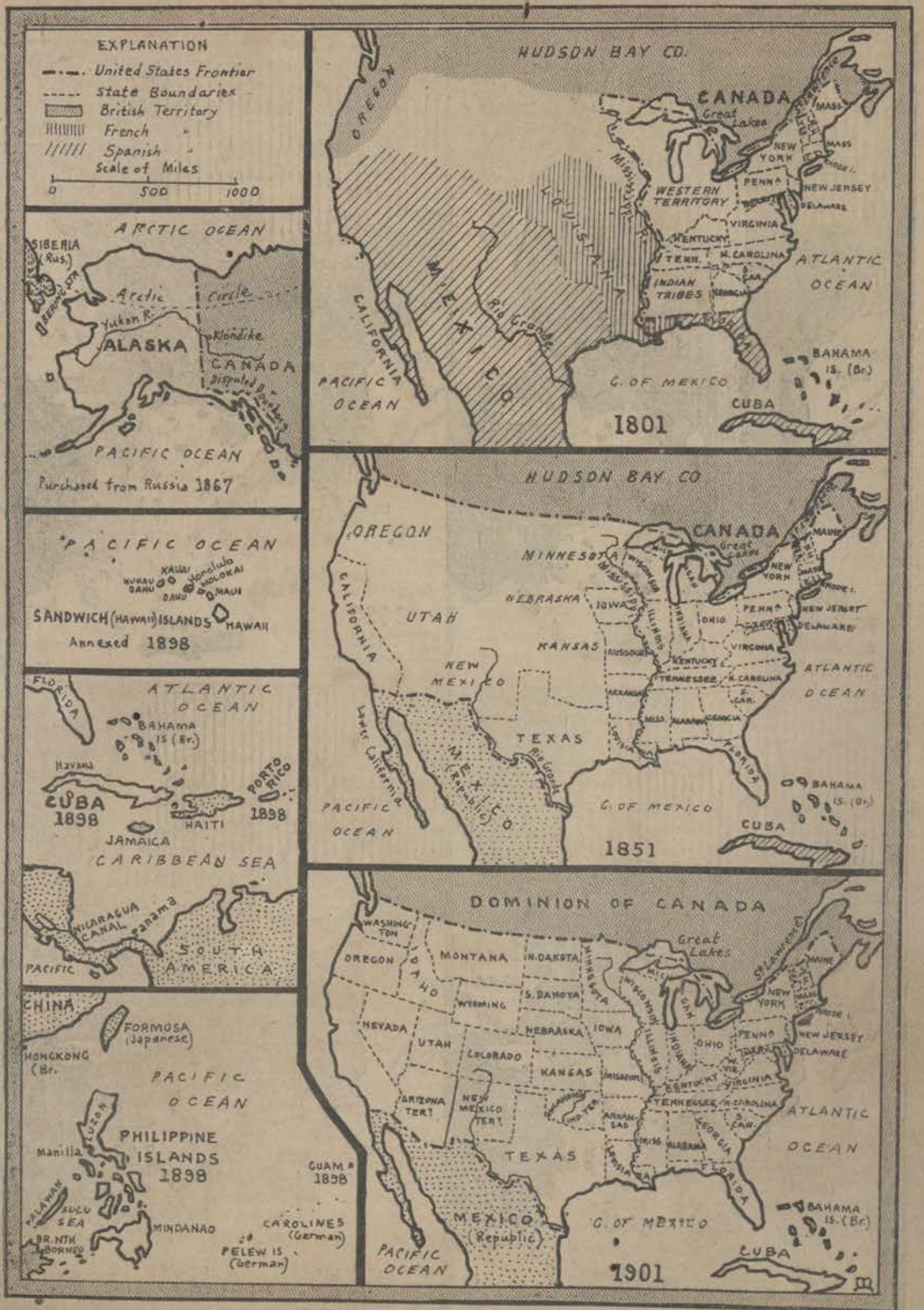

BRITISH ISLES
EUROPE
ASIA
Madeira (Port)
Gibraltar (Br)
Canary Is. (Sp)
ALGIERS
TUNIS
MOROCCO
TRIPOLI
EGYPT
Nile
RED SEA
Sahara
NUBIA
Senegal
SOUDAN OR NIGRITIA
GAMBIA
Joliba or Niger
ABYSSINIA
Socotra
SIERRA LEONE
GUINEA
Ashantee
Mountains of the Moon
DARFOOR
ADEL
Gold Coast
F. Po (Sp)
BIAFRA
Annobon (Sp)
CONGO
ZANZIBAR
ASCENSION
Benguela
ANGOLA
ZANQUEBAR
Mozambique
ST HELENA (Br)
Zambesi
MADAGASCAR
I. de France
Bourbon
Fish R.
CAFFRARIA
C. of Good Hope
AFRICA
1801
BRITISH ISLES
GERMANY
RUSSIA
FRANCE
AUSTRIA
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
TURKEY
ASIA
Madeira (Port)
Gibraltar (Br)
MALTA (Br)
CYPRUS (Br)
Canary Is. (Sp)
MOROCCO
ALGERIA
TRIPOLI (Turkish)
BARCA
Cairo
SUEZ
EGYPT
RED SEA
Nile
SAHARA
Timbuctoo
SOUDAN
EGYPT SUDAN Khartum
Aden
Socotra (Br)
Senegal
L. Chad
NIGERIA
SOMALI
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
FRENCH SUDAN
ABYSSINIA
GOLD CT
LAGOS
Fernando Po (Sp)
FRENCH CONGO
Congo
UGANDA
BR. EAST AFRICA
Annobon (Sp)
CONGO STATE (Belgian)
ZANZIBAR (Br)
ASCENSION I. (Br)
Congo R.
ANGOLA
RHODESIA
ST HELENA (Br)
Zambesi
MADAGASCAR
Mauritius (Br)
Reunion (Fr)
WALFISH B (Br)
TRANSVAAL
CAPE COLONY
NATAL
Cape Town
British
French
German
Spanish
Portuguese
Italian
Egyptian & British
AFRICA
1901

American ideas. For a moment it seemed as if the Americans were going to succumb to the prevailing malady. But the more recent indications of American policy would seem to show that the "colonial microbe," which Lord Rosebery says "has penetrated almost every Empire," has lost much of its virulent vitality in American veins. The exigencies of British policy in China may co-operate with the example of America to secure the substitution of the policy of the Open Door for the policy of eternally pegging out fresh claims to territory, which the nations have neither got the People to colonise, the Soldiers to defend, nor the Statesmen to administer.

So far the scramble for Africa has produced no considerable wars, except in the extreme north. The campaigns which France fought in Algeria under the Monarchy, may be set off against the prolonged series of our warlike adventures, beginning with the bombardment of the Alexandrian forts in 1882, and ending with the capture of Khartoum in 1898, which made England dominant in the Nile valley. Our military expeditions, twice repeated, which led to the annexation of the kingdom of Ashantee in the West Coast, may be paralleled by the French expedition which extinguished the kingdom of Dahomey. The costly expedition for the rescue of a consul, which led a British army to the gates of Magdala, was not followed by any annexation of Abyssinian territory, which remained intact until in a fatal moment the unappropriated Red Sea littoral led the Italians to embark on a colonial venture which resulted in the catastrophe of Adowa. In the extreme south, there have been many native wars, but not till the close of the century was the continent the scene of serious war between white men. In fact, from 1801 down to 1899, it may be said that African wars were confined to conflicts between Europeans on one side, and Africans on the other. White never fought White in deadly war on a large scale in the Black Man's Continent until the closing years of the Century. In Asia, the Whites had often been in collision; but in Africa that sorry spectacle was reserved for the penultimate and ultimate year of the Nineteenth Century. The Portuguese continue to hold with paralysed hand vast tracts of Africa which are both malarious and fertile. But for the award by which their title to Delagoa Bay received the recognition of International law, they would have almost ceased to count among the African powers. Delagoa Bay, however, the northern sea gate of the Transvaal, being theirs by an undisputed title, the Portuguese have still to be reckoned with. But unless an unforeseen revival takes place before long, it seems to be very doubtful whether a hundred years hence the country of Vasco de Gama will retain any foothold on African soil.

One remarkable feature of African development during the Nineteenth Century, is the part which has been taken by Chartered Companies. Of these, much the most conspicuous are the Niger Company, which has already transferred the administration of a vast empire in West Africa to the Colonial Office; and the Chartered Company of South Africa, which, under the impulse of Mr. Rhodes, has extended the British Empire far north of the Zambesi.

History is one long series of tragedies, and almost every Century the curtain descends upon the last act of a great World-drama. The Nineteenth was no exception to the rule, for in its last years the curtain was rung down upon the close of the fifth act of the stately tragedy of the Spanish Empire. Three centuries ago Spain towered aloft in pride of place, easily first of the World-Empires of her time. Hardly had she emerged from the secular struggle which she had waged with the Moslem Power, than the Spanish Monarchy succeeded to the vast inheritance of the New World. Seated on either side of the Atlantic, it seemed as if she were destined to a period of glory and of dominion rivalling that of ancient Rome. But not more than four centuries had passed since Columbus discovered the new world, when Spain made her final exit from the hemisphere which at first had seemed to lie at her feet. The war which was waged by the United States against the Spanish Monarchy in 1898, finally ousted the Spanish flag from the islands on which it was first hoisted. The West Indies, which first witnessed the victories of Spain, were the last to fall from her diadem. A swift and decisive war terminated for ever the Spanish dominion beyond the Atlantic. Porto Rico was annexed to the American Republic. The island of Cuba was declared an independent Republic under the protection of the United States; in the far East the Philippine Archipelago dropped at the same time from her withered hands. The close of the Century, sees the Empire of Philip shorn of all its outlying dependencies, save a few islands in the Atlantic. In the Cemetery of Empires, the Nineteenth Century is the date inscribed on the tombstone of Spain. Nations are immortal, but Empires are short-lived. Between the day when Augustus donned the imperial purple and the day when Alaric the Goth humbled the Seven Hilled City's pride, there elapsed but as many centuries as lie between the time when Ferdinand and Isabella equipped Columbus for the discovery of the New World, and the signature of the Treaty of Paris which finally termi-



THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

(All the maps on this page are drawn to the same scale.)

1801
Turkey
Russia
Austria
RUSSIA
BESSARABIA
Pruth
AUSTRIA
Danube
BLACK SEA
TURKEY
ADRIATIC SEA
IONIAN ISLES
ASIA MINOR
CRETE
1829
Tributary to Turkey
Dniester R.
R. Pruth
MOLDAVIA
WALACHIA
SERVIA
R. Danube
Navarino
GREECE
1856
Bosporus
Bardanelles
1878
Vienna
Budapest
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
Hungary
Transylvania
Belgrade
ROUMANIA
Bucharest
BOSNIA
Plevna
BULGARIA
Sofia
Balkans
E. Roumelia
Philippopolis
ALBANIA
MACEDONIA
Thessaly
Dardanelles
Constantinople
ITALY
Athens
CYCLADES

nated the over-sea dominion of Spain. If four hundred years may be taken as the normal span of an Empire's life, what would be the actuarial estimate of the years that must elapse before the British Empire joins the long procession of imperial shades which have preceded us into the abyss.

The Century which stood by the bier of the Spanish Empire officiated at the birth of more than one nationality. Of these, four—Greece, Servia, Bulgaria, and Roumania—were carved by as many Cæsarian operations from the decrepit body of the Ottoman Empire. The rebirth of Greece was preceded by dreams of the revival of the glories of ancient Hellas—dreams which at present still await their fulfilment. In the north, Moldavia and Wallachia united to form the kingdom of Roumania, having passed in the course of a single century through all the intermediate stages which lie between a Turkish Pashalik and a full-blown independent State. Servia has also attained the regal dignity, while Bulgaria still owes allegiance to her Turkish suzerain. It is now more than four hundred years since the Turks established themselves at Constantinople, and if four centuries be the lease of an empire's life, it is about time that the empire of the Ottoman was preparing for its obsequies. But these old empires are tough. At the beginning of the century the Turks were at war with France. In 1827–29 they were at war with England, France and Russia—a war which led to the destruction of their fleet at Navarino, and which enabled the Russian Emperor to dictate peace at Adrianople. Ten years later the Empire was threatened by the revolt of its Egyptian tributary, and was saved from imminent jeopardy by the intervention of Russia and England. In 1853 Turkey stood the brunt of war which ultimately brought France, England and Sardinia to her aid, with the Crimean War as the melancholy result. In 1861 French intervention liberated the Lebanon from the direct rule of the Pashas; in 1868 Servia succeeded in ridding herself of the Turkish garrison. In 1876 Turkey had to face a war with Servia and Montenegro, followed in 1877 and 1878 by her last great war with Russia, at the close of which she was dismembered by the treaty of San Stefano. From this dire peril she was rescued by the Congress of Berlin, which "concentrated" her possessions by amputating her Bosnian provinces, and restoring to her the right to devastate in perpetuity the province of Macedonia. Since then the Sultan has emerged victorious from a war with Greece, which resulted, however, in the practical elimination of Turkish authority from the island of Crete. Notwithstanding this long succession of wars and rebellions, the Ottoman Empire is still sufficiently vigorous at the end of the century to massacre the Armenians both in Asia Minor and in Constantinople without being called to account or receiving other punishment than the sanction and benediction of the German Emperor.

The litter of new States which the Century has brought forth in the near East is completely overshadowed by the great event of the mid-century, the creation of the Italian Kingdom. Whatever hopes have been disappointed, however far short the reality has fallen of the expectations entertained in the heroic period of struggle when Mazzini and Garibaldi were the heroes of European Democracy, no one can deny that the achievement of Italian Unity must rank as one of the great feats of the Century. The enthusiasm of Mazzini, the romantic valour of Garibaldi, the statecraft of Cavour, and the good luck of the House of Savoy, combined to build up a compact and homogeneous State from the congeries of principalities and kingdoms into which the Peninsula was divided by the Congress of Vienna. It remains to this day the most conspicuous monument of the revolutionary movement which culminated in the Continental convulsion of 1848. The revolutionary volcano which in its last eruption had submerged Europe with a lava-flood from France, had remained quiescent for nearly half a century. The *émeute* in Paris which placed Louis Philippe on the throne of Charles X. hardly deserves to be regarded as an exception, but in 1848 it seemed as if the revolutionary volcano were once more to be in full eruption, and this time there was not one crater only, there were several. France overturned the Monarchy in July, and re-established the Republic, destined to be but short-lived. In Berlin the Revolution achieved an even more short-lived victory, but for the moment it dictated terms even to the Hohenzollerns. In England the Chartist movement, with its threats of physical force and riot, was but a faint and far-away echo of the violent storm which raged in Central Europe. From Copenhagen to Rome the people seemed to be everywhere rising in revolt, and nowhere was the movement more remarkable than in Austria and Hungary. The older sovereigns and statesmen of Europe and the moulders of its destinies, experienced the sensation which men feel in tropical countries in an earthquake. For the first moment of panic, no one knows whether the shock is to be repeated; but after a time confidence is regained, and the world goes on much the same as before. So it was in Europe in 1848 and 1849. The old feudalism received a deadly blow, and modern principles were established more or less completely, even in the strongholds

KARL FREIHERR VON STEIN. 1737–1831.

of absolutism. But the general political contour of Europe was found to differ very little in 1850 from what it was in 1847. Even in Italy the change was very slight. Rome, after being besieged by a French army, was restored to the Pope, and the Bourbons continued for another ten years to reign in Naples. In Hungary the revolt was suppressed by the intervention of the Russian armies. Nicholas, who regarded himself, not without reason, as a kind of Chief Justice of Christendom, deemed it his duty to suppress a revolutionary rising which threatened to destroy the Vienna settlement which was the charter of the peace of Europe. He succeeded, but his intervention cost him dear. He earned the ingratitude of the Austrians whom he had saved, and he drove into exile Kossuth, who exerted his unrivalled eloquence in inciting the Russophobes of the west to make war on the Tsar.

The most massive piece of State architecture which the Nineteenth Century leaves as an inheritance to its successor is the German Empire. Germany was more of an entity before the Nineteenth Century than Italy. Hence the creation of the Italian Kingdom stands out more distinctly as a definite creation than the gradual evolution of Germanic Unity. The ideal of her unity was at first mainly drawn from the revolutionary literature of 1848. It was not fully attained till long afterwards, when the German Empire had passed through three distinct labour pangs, ever increasing in intensity. The first was the War of Liberation, as the Germans termed it, which Austria and Prussia waged for the emancipation of the Germanic States from Denmark Three years later Prussia, by a war which flung Austria out of Germany, established the unity of North Germany, completed the unification of Italy, and indirectly achieved the emancipation of Hungary. Five years later the conquest of France enabled the Germanic peoples to proclaim William I. as Emperor in the Palace of Versailles. Thus was created the empire which for a quarter of a century dominated Europe. The Franco-Russian alliance was the first counterpoise to the domination of Germany. This chequered process of the making and the unmaking of States in the Nineteenth Century will long be memorable in the history of Europe.

The new States of the Nineteenth Century are not like the States which a hundred years ago were carved out of conquered Europe by the sword of Napoleon. They represent, all of them, a process of natural growth. In all cases the birth-throes were painful, for Pain stands as sentinel at the gates of Life whether of nations or of individuals. But the frontiers of each of the new States founded in the Nineteenth Century correspond more or less closely to the area within which a single race is predominant. There are Roumanians and Servians outside these kingdoms; there is an Italy Irredenta, and a Bulgaria Irredenta, and North Schleswig has not yet been returned to the Danes, to whom it rightly belongs. France still fails to find consolation in Savoy for the provinces which she has lost on the Rhine. There are still millions of Germans outside the German Empire, but they are so inextricably intermixed with men of other nationalities that it is difficult to imagine any possible rectification of frontier which would bring all German-speaking men within the ring-fence of a single State. The Czechs of Bohemia are the only nationality whose aspirations for independent existence at present disturb the tranquil surface of the European lake. Poland, the one great nationality which twice during the century made a convulsive struggle to assert its right to an independent existence, remains inert and motionless. She is the Suicide of the Nations, and she is buried as suicides were in old times at the junction of three cross roads with a stake in her inside. The Nineteenth Century infused the breath of life into nations that seemed buried in the sleep of death. Nothing is impossible, and it is always the unexpected which happens. But it is difficult for even the most sanguine enthusiast to see from what quarter the Trump of Resurrection can sound that will summon the Poles to burst the bars of the sepulchre in which they are immured.

If the Nineteenth Century has been marked by the astonishing progress and development of the English-speaking world, both under the Republic and in the Empire, there remains one conspicuous exception, too conspicuous to be overlooked even in the most cursory survey of contemporary history. On January 1st, 1801, the Act of Union between Great Britain and Ireland came into force. The Union has therefore lasted exactly a hundred years. Its most sanguine advocates, its stoutest defenders, will hardly venture to assert that the record of the relations thus established contributes much to the splendour of the Century's Record. It would indeed be more correct to say that at the fraternal festival in which the nations celebrate the completion of the Century, Ireland sits like the skeleton at the Egyptian feast, a mournful reminder of the other side of things. Britain to-day exults in the increase of her population, in the expansion of her commerce, in the manifestation of passionate loyalty on the part of her colonies. In Ireland all these grounds for satisfaction disappear. In place of increased population we have the melancholy phenomenal spectacle of an English-speaking race that has

DUKE OF WELLINGTON. 1769-1852.

dwindled by millions in the course of a century in which every other English-speaking community has doubled its population. In 1811 its population was 5,900,000; in 1845 it was 8,300,000; in 1899 it was only 4,500,000. The wealth of Ireland, gauged by deposits in savings banks, is said to have increased; but, notwithstanding that fact, Ireland can hardly be regarded as flourishing, either financially or commercially. She has two great industries: the building of ships at Belfast, and the manufacture of intoxicating drinks in the shape of Belfast whiskey and Dublin stout. The Union, which was to have brought loyalty and content, has brought neither. The new Century will open with a manifestation of Irish discontent as formidable as those which were associated with the names of Dan O'Connell or Charles Stewart Parnell. Whatever excuses we may make for it, the fact remains—grim and indisputable—that Ireland is still the weak link in the chain of Empire, our one conspicuous failure, manifest to all men, and an indelible blot upon the escutcheon of the reign.

When the Century opened, the memory of the dark and bloody days of 1798 was still fresh in the minds of our people. The first five-and-twenty years were spent in a fierce and ultimately successful agitation for the Emancipation of Roman Catholics. It was followed by an agitation, perhaps more popular, but not so successful, for the Repeal of the Union. In 1848 the revolutionary earthquake which shook Europe created tremors in Ireland, which, although they failed to overturn the established order, contributed materially to the development of the British Empire, by exiling some of the ablest Irishmen to lands where they achieved a distinction which would have been denied to them in their own country. The great exodus that followed built up a new Ireland beyond the sea, which ever looked with longing, lingering gaze upon the Emerald Isle. Not twenty years had passed from the time when the emigrant ships crossed the Atlantic before the exiles of Erin stretched out a helping hand to the Irish whom they had left behind in the old country. The immediate result was the outbreak of Fenianism, which, although not successful, led directly to the Disestablishment of the Irish Church and the first successful attempt made by an English Government to heal the open sore of Ireland, and seal up the perennial fountain of Irish discontent which sprang from the chartered right of the Irish landlord to steal his tenants' improvements. Twenty years after the first Reform Act was passed, the House of Commons had carried a Bill which would have secured the Irish tenant protection for his property in accordance with the recommendation of the Devon Commission, but the House of Lords—ever the evil genius of Ireland—interfered, and the wound was allowed to fester unhealed for over twenty years. Even then the remedy was applied with so niggard a hand that, ten years later, Mr. Gladstone again had to legislate on the same subject. His second attempt, although it brought a settlement nearer, required to be again and again supplemented by fresh legislation, and as the Century closes we find both the north and south of Ireland agreed in demanding legislation to settle the question which Mr. Gladstone fondly believed he had finally disposed of in 1881.

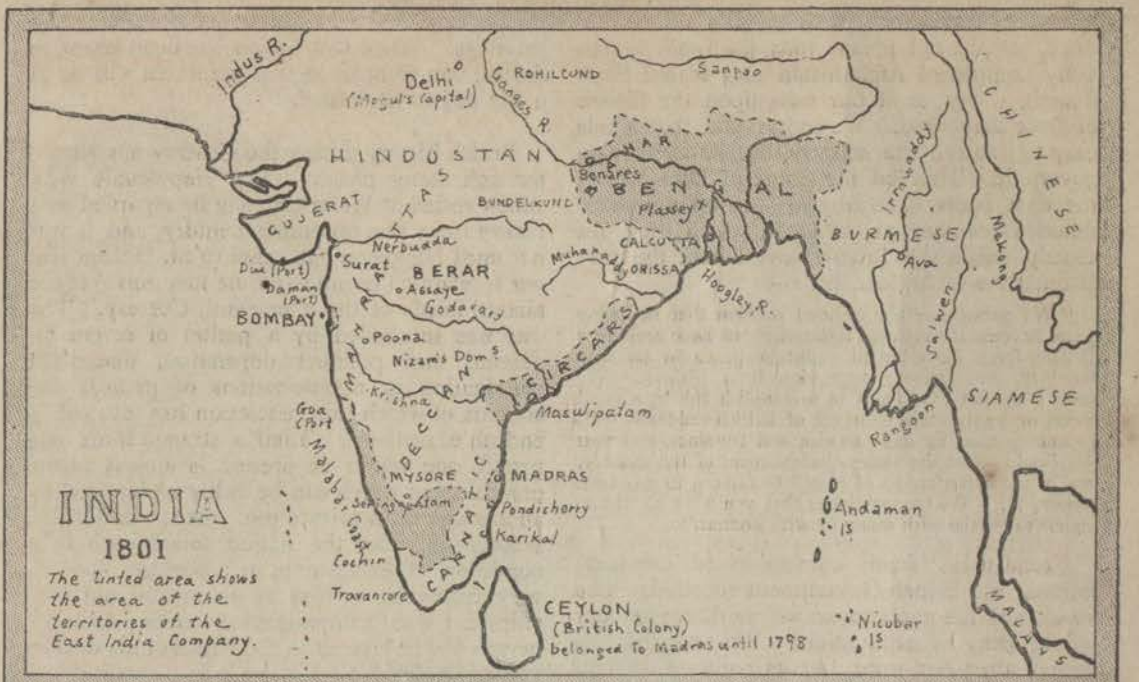
As the Fenian movement begot the first Land Act of 1869, so the Land League was the father of the Act of 1881. As O'Connell was the representative of Repeal, Mr. Parnell was that of the Land Agitation. That agitation, although accompanied by the inevitable quantum of agrarian crime, achieved a triumph the effect of which was emphasised rather than diminished by the arbitrary arrest of Mr. Parnell immediately after the passing of the Land Act. If Mr. Parnell entered Kilmainham as a victim, he came out of it as a victor, thanks to the compact for which Mr. Chamberlain was largely responsible. In Ireland, as in all countries where the Government is conducted in defiance of the wishes of the majority of the people, the prison was largely the stepping-stone to popular favour. Mr. Parnell threw himself with renewed energy into the agitation in favour of Home Rule. In 1886, at the first general election held after the extension of the Franchise, he was returned for Westminster at the head of a phalanx of about eighty members, all guaranteed to vote like a machine in obedience to the orders of the Uncrowned King. As the Liberals and the Tories were almost exactly equal, Mr. Parnell held the key of the situation. Mr. Gladstone, ever quick to recognise the logic of accomplished facts, accepted the conditions without which it would have been impossible for him to form a ministry. The result was that, while he rent his party in twain, he failed to carry Home Rule. The renewed attempt, in which the aged statesmen spent the last strength of his declining years, failed owing to the veto of the permanent and irresponsible Conservative majority in the House of Lords. Then the disappearance of Mr. Parnell from the scene reduced the Irish Nationalists to an aggregate of jarring atoms—a state from which, at the close of the Century, they are only just beginning to emerge.

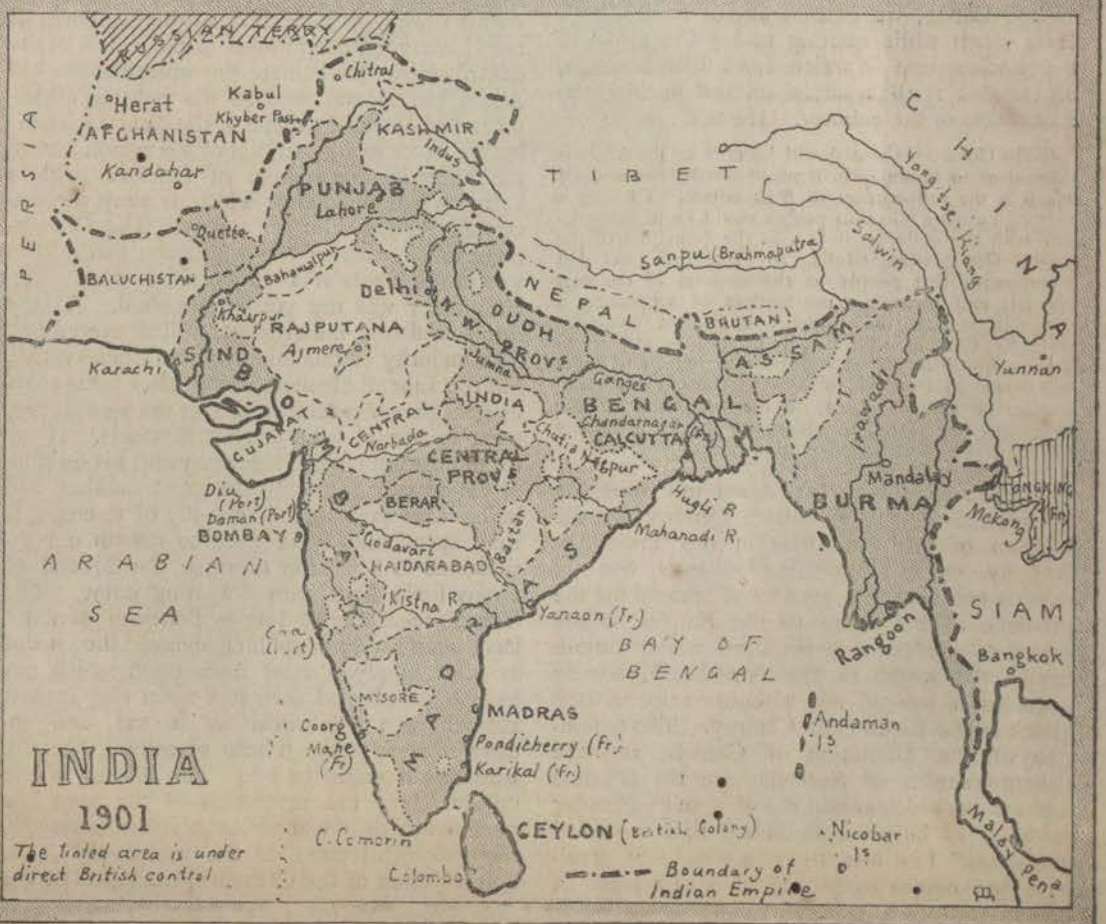
The new Century finds the Irish majority in Parliament and the popular majority in Ireland as much opposed to English domination as they were when the Act of Union was first enacted.

It is a supreme object-lesson in the art of how not to govern. In every other English-speaking community the local majority is allowed to do as it pleases, even although it may choose to do very foolishly. Only in Ireland do we persist in the opposite policy. Had the liberty which has from the first been freely accorded to the Australians, and which has been enjoyed by the Canadians for the last sixty years, been accorded to Ireland, what might not the result have been? Before that time Canada was as discontented as Ireland. But with Lord Durham's mission and the recognition of the rights of the local governing majorities to self-government, disorder, disloyalty, and discontent disappeared. Not even difference of language and of religion can impair the loyalty of the French Canadians. Only in Ireland have we insisted in extending to an English-speaking population the benefits of our superior wisdom, instead of allowing them to learn wisdom by experience, and to be disciplined by the painful consequences of their inevitable blunders. It remains to be seen whether the Twentieth Century will profit by the experience of its predecessor.

In 1801 the Government of India was still in the hands of the East India Company. Our rule, which had been established in the previous century by the victories of Clive and the somewhat Rhodesian policy of Warren Hastings, was being extended by the campaigns of the great captain who, as the Duke of Wellington, was ultimately destined to win renown much nearer home. The history of the first half of the Century is one long succession of wars, each of which resulted in the further extension of the British raj. Once during the Sikh war it seemed as if the unbroken career of victory was to be checked, but the star of England was in the ascendant, and down to 1857 we went on conquering and to conquer. But in the last year the incredible and criminal folly of the military authorities confronted their Sepoy soldiery with the terrible alternative of Damnation or Mutiny. Such, at least, is the frank admission of so eminent an authority as Lord Roberts, who, in telling the story of that tragic chapter in the annals of India, asserts the truth of the story of the greased cartridges, and declares that the native army was practically shut up to one or other of these alternatives. That they mutinied in those circumstances is not surprising, and for a moment it seemed as if the revolt would shake to its foundations our Indian Dominion. It was a terrible moment in the history of the Empire; but, thanks largely to the character and genius of men like the Lawrences and others of that school, our garrison held its own throughout the greater part of India until reinforcements arrived, after which the beating out of the rebellion was only a question of time. The Mutiny failed in its immediate purpose, but the suppression of the mutineers was speedily followed by the suppression of the East India Company, and the government of India was undertaken directly by the Crown. Appointments in the Indian Service were thrown open to competition, a change which, among some good results, had one consequence not by any means beneficial. In the old days Anglo-Indians spent their lives in India, and became living links between the populations which they governed and the inhabitants of the foggy islands in the Northern Seas, whose strange destiny it has been to hold the Empire of the East in fee. For the last thirty or forty years the Anglo-Indian official has become more or less a bird of passage, and the gulf between the rulers and ruled has widened. The population, however, has increased, and the tendency of expansion has asserted itself under the Crown as under the Company. The ancient Kingdom of Burmah was annexed by Lord Randolph Churchill in 1886, and the same malignant destiny which drove the East India Company to make the ill-omened way across the mountains into Afghanistan in the forties, impelled Lord Lytton in the seventies to undertake an equally barren and disastrous campaign beyond the hills. Of late, despite the expenditure of many hundred millions upon railways, and a much smaller expenditure upon canals, the Indian Empire is periodically scourged with famine, the latest visitation of which was accompanied by the simultaneous outbreak of cholera and the bubonic plague. The extent and the magnificence of our Indian Empire dazzle the imagination not merely of our own people, but of those of other nations; but those who have even imperfectly realised the immensity of the human problem involved in the government of three hundred millions of human beings—differing in language, in race, in temperament, and in religion, nine-tenths of whom are deadly poor—are much more awed by their responsibilities than they are carried away by the glamour of Imperial splendour.

The fallacy that the extension of territorial dominion is equivalent to the increase of imperial strength is one into which mankind is continually falling. It ruined Napoleon at the beginning, it is threatening to ruin England at the end of the Century. Yet we had an object-lesson, costly and unmistakable, in the middle of the Century which might have taught us better. In 1839, "being moved thereto by the


INDIA
1801
The tinted area shows the area of the territories of the East India Company.
Indus R.
Delhi (Mogul's capital)
ROHILCUND
Ganges R.
Sanpoo
HINDUSTAN
Benares
BENGAL
Plassey
BUNDELKUND
GUJERAT
MARATTAS
Nerbudda R.
Surat
BERAR
Assaye
Godavary R.
Dieu (Port)
Daman (Port)
BOMBAY
Poona
Nizam's Dom.
Krishna R.
DECCAN
CIRCARS
Goa (Port)
Malabar Coast
Cochin
Travancore
MYSORE
Seringapatam
MADRAS
Pondicherry
Karikal
CARNATIC
CEYLON
(British Colony)
belonged to Madras until 1798
Masulipatam
CALCUTTA
ORISSA
Hoogley R.
Irrawaddy R.
BURMESE
Ava
Salwen R.
Rangoon
Andaman Is.
Nicobar Is.
CHINESE
Menam
SIAMESE
MALAYS


INDIA
1901
The tinted area is under direct British control
PERSIA
AFGHANISTAN
Herat
Kabul
Khyber Pass
Kandahar
Chitral
KASHMIR
Indus R.
PUNJAB
Lahore
Quetta
BALUCHISTAN
Bahawalpur
Sind
Karachi
RAJPUTANA
Ajmere
Kharpur
Delhi
N.W. PROVS
OUDH
NEPAL
BHUTAN
ASSAM
TIBET
CHINA
Yang-tse-Kiang
Salwin R.
Sanpu (Brahmaputra)
Yunnan
Jumna R.
Ganges R.
BENGAL
Chandarnagar (Fr.)
CALCUTTA
Chutia Nagpur
INDIA
CENTRAL
Narbada R.
CENTRAL PROVS
GUJARAT
Diu (Port)
Daman (Port)
BOMBAY
BERAR
Godavari R.
HAIDARABAD
Kistna R.
Yanaon (Fr.)
Mahanadi R.
Hugli R.
Irrawadi R.
Mandalay
BURMA
Menam R.
Mekong R.
SIAM
Rangoon
Bangkok
ARABIAN SEA
BAY OF BENGAL
MYSORE
Coorg
Mahe (Fr.)
MADRAS
Pondicherry (Fr.)
Karikal (Fr.)
Andaman Is.
Nicobar Is.
C. Comorin
CEYLON (British Colony)
Colombo
Malay Pen.
Boundary of Indian Empire

devil," as the old phrase runs, an Anglo-Indian army conquered Afghanistan and seated Shah Soojah, a puppet of our own, upon the throne of Dost Mahomed. We soon found that it was easy to overrun the country, but impossible to govern it. This led the Court of Directors of the East India Company to draw up a minute, dated December 31, 1841, in which they set clearly before the British Government the only alternatives in Afghanistan :—

"We pronounce our decided opinion that for many years to come the restored monarchy will have need of a British force in order to maintain peace in its own territory, and prevent aggression from without. We must add, that to attempt to accomplish this by a small force, or by the mere influence of British residents, will, in our opinion, be most unwise and frivolous, and that we should prefer the entire abandonment of the country, and a frank confession of complete failure, to any such policy. . . . We are convinced that you have no middle course to pursue with safety or with honour."

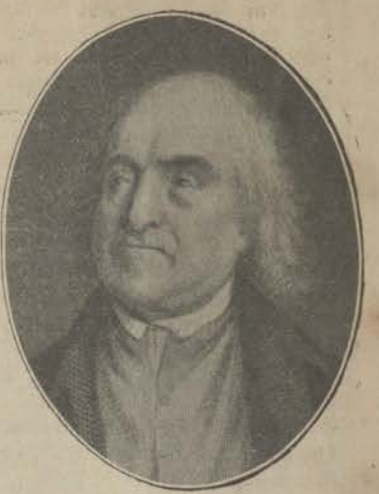
From this "frank confession of complete failure," the British Government recoiled. The result was the catastrophe which destroyed our whole army of occupation. We avenged this defeat after our wont, but as soon as we had sacked Cabul; we cleared out of the country. It is worth while quoting to-day the terms of the proclamation in which Lord Ellenborough, on October 1, 1842, explained and justified the evacuation of the country. He said :—

"The Governor-General will leave it to the Afghans themselves to create a Government amidst the anarchy which is the consequence of their crimes. To force a sovereign upon a reluctant people would be as inconsistent with the policy as it is with the principles of the British Government, tending to place the arms and resources of that people at the disposal of the first invader, and to impose the burthen of supporting a sovereign without the prospect of benefit from his alliance. Content with the limits Nature appears to have assigned to its empire, the Government of India will devote all its efforts to the establishment and maintenance of general peace, to the protection of the sovereigns and chiefs, its allies, and to the prosperity and happiness of its own faithful subjects."

The doctrine here laid down will probably be applied in the Twentieth Century for the solution of our difficulties in the Transvaal. Not by making unwilling subjects, but by making colonists feel proud and grateful for the privilege of belonging to the Empire, is the secret of successful imperialism which Britain taught the world in the Nineteenth, having acquired it herself, not without many a hard knock in the Eighteenth Century. The federation of the Dominion of Canada, and the Commonwealth of Australia are the political monuments which attend the wisdom of allowing colonists to be so independent that the word "subjects" has lost its significance of servitude and comes to be regarded as a mark of privilege. When that lesson has been learnt in Africa, our troubles in that continent will be in a fair way to be settled.

British history during the Century has passed through many phases. The Napoleonic War, which ended at Waterloo, may be regarded as a legacy from the preceding century, and it was not until Napoleon had gone to St. Helena that our forefathers began to adjust themselves to the altered needs of the Nineteenth Century. The war was succeeded by a period of severe industrial and political depression, discontent culminating in manifestations of popular discontent, of which this generation has fortunately had no experience. Then a strange thing happened, one which at present is almost inconceivable, but which can be easily understood by an analogy from private life. At the end of the Napoleonic War, the nation found itself in a condition of exhaustion, in a position, indeed, very analogous to that of an invalid not convalescent, who is impatient to recover. As a sick person places himself in the hands of his doctor, whom he derides when he is in a condition of robust health, so John Bull, at the beginning of the Century, placed himself in the hands of the doctrinaires. Of course, the unregenerate old Adam kicked, and derided the political economists and eminent experts of the dismal science; but the more intelligent part of the nation bowed the knee in the temple of Bentham with a humility and obedience which is simply inconceivable in John Bull of to-day. The Government of this country in the twenties and thirties was in the hands of a very limited class. The democracy was not yet enfranchised. A very small educated minority controlled everything. The majority of this minority was Conservative, but the Liberal element, which, after some years of struggle, succeeded in gaining the ascendency, went to school with Jeremy Bentham. It accepted his utilitarian philosophy and his formula of the greatest good for the great number, and being thus possessed of a body of doctrine, it went systematically to work to reform our institutions in a fashion to which the Liberal of to-day looks back with desparing envy. The Gospel according to Jeremy Bentham, may not have been a very soul-filling evangel, but it did at least supply a solid basis upon which our forefathers planted their feet when they looked abroad upon the world as it was, and endeavoured to make it into something like the world as it ought to be. The reform of the criminal law, the revolution of the poor law administration, the abolition of rotten boroughs, the enfranchisement of the middle-class, the emancipation of the Catholics, the repeal of the

JOHN STUART MILL.
English Political Economist.
1806–1873.



JEREMY BENTHAM.
English Philosopher.
1748–1832.

GEORGE W. F. HEGEL.
German Philosopher.
1770–1831.

HERBERT SPENCER.
English Philosopher.
Born 1820.

HEINRICH HEINE.
German Poet.
1799–1856.

LIBRARY OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

Test and Corporation Acts, and the liberation of the slaves, all belonged to the period when England for a time was the Paradise of the Professors; and being conscious of her ill-health, placed herself unreservedly in the hands of the political physicians. That period may be roughly said to have terminated with the accession of our present Queen.

From 1837 to 1867, the next period of thirty years, was the era of the Reign of the Middle-class. Its great achievements were the reform of our fiscal system, the establishment of free-trade, and the reconstitution of our colonial system on Liberal bases. At the beginning of the century it was the habit of Liberal Englishmen to assume that wars were caused by kings, and that if the enlightened people were but enfranchised, "the hoarse, dull drum would sleep, and man be happy yet." The emancipation of the Middle-class, however, did not inaugurate the Millenium of Peace. The period of its ascendency was disfigured by the colossal blunder of the Crimean War in Europe, while abroad, wars from one end of Asia to the other attested the vanity of the hope that the middle-class Englishmen would be any more pacific than the aristocrats to whom he had succeeded.

From 1867 to 1885 the country passed through a transition period. While the householders in the towns were enfranchised, the householders in the country were still outside the pale of the constitution. This epoch was chiefly notable on account of the evidence which it afforded of the awakening of the English conscience to a sense of its responsibilities to Ireland. The Disestablishment of the Irish Church, the Irish Land Act of 1870, the abortive attempt to establish an Irish University, the second Irish Land Act of 1881, all indicated that the partially enfranchised democracy, under the influence of Mr. Gladstone, was unable to maintain the same attitude of complacent indifference with which both aristocrats and middle-class had regarded the complaints that never ceased to rise from the Distressful Land. It also marked the renewed attempt to carry out the ancient Radical creed in the establishment of secret voting, the passing of the Education Act, the abolition of church rates, and the repeal of University tests. This transition period culminated in the complete enfranchisement of the householders in the three kingdoms by the Reform Bill of 1884. This may be said to have completed the reform of the political constitution on Radical lines—with one great exception. The House of Commons had been democratised, the House of Lords remained absolutely unaffected by the changes of half a century.

We then enter upon the fourth period, in which we have a fully enfranchised democracy in the Lower House, with an unreformed obstructive Second Chamber in the House of Lords. The immediate result of the enfranchisement of the Irish householders was to bring the question of Home Rule to the fore; and the politics of the rest of the century were dominated more or less exclusively by that issue. The House of Commons at the second attempt carried a measure of Home Rule, only to find it flung back in their faces with contumely by the House of Lords. The democracy had to choose between making the best of things as they were or completing the work of reconstruction by radically reforming or abolishing the House of Lords. At this critical moment the Progressive party lost its Leader, and the electors recoiled from going any further in the path of constitutional change in the absence of a leader. Until a Moses arises, the children of Israel prefer the flesh-pots of Egypt to the perils of the wilderness. Our Moses was taken away at the very moment when the fateful decision had to be given. The attraction of the flesh-pots, therefore, proved irresistible. When the old Moses died, the leadership fell into the hands of Joshua the son of Nun, who carried on the work of his predecessor to its victorious completion. Our Joshua was too much of the temperament of Hamlet to play the *rôle* of the son of Nun with the same success. Hence the close of the Nineteenth Century finds us in England in a position which to our grandfathers would have been absolutely inconceivable. It is enough to make Jeremy Bentham and his friends turn in their graves to contemplate the spectacle of a fully enfranchised British democracy electing by ballot, at two successive elections, a majority of nearly one hundred and fifty in favour of the Conservative Party. This, however, has been one of the surprises of the Nineteenth Century; possibly the Twentieth may have others not less unexpected.

Looking over the result of the political enfranchisement of the masses, while it cannot be said to have realised the expectations of those who, whether Benthamites, Chartists, or middle-class Radicals, regarded it as the panacea for all political ills, neither can it be said to have been altogether a failure. The success of any form of government depends chiefly upon the character of its leaders, and the British democracy has shown itself singularly responsive to a clear and vigorous lead, but it is incapable of more than leaderless inarticulate aspiration after an amelioration of its own conditions. It has been chiefly useful in quickening the interest of Parliament

ICELAND
(Danish)
GERMAN STATES
1. Hanover (to England)
2. Oldenburg
3. Mecklenburg
4. Pommerania (to Sweden)
5. Wurtemberg
6. Bavaria
ITALIAN STATES
7. Cisalpine Republic
8. Parma
9. Ligurian Republic
10. Nice
11. Piedmont
12. Savoy
13. Tuscany
14. Roman Republic
UNITED KINGDOM
NORTH SEA
DENMARK
BATAVIAN REP.
SWEDEN
Finland
BALTIC SEA
RUSSIA
Volga R.
ASIATIC RUSSIA
PRUSSIA
SAXONY
Warsaw
Danube
FRANCE
HELVETIA
AUSTRIA
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
CORSICA
SARDINIA
NAPLES
TURKEY
BLACK SEA
Georgia
CASPIAN SEA
Gibraltar (Br.)
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
SICILY
Ionian Isles (Venice 1797)
TURKEY IN ASIA
Malta
----- Old Kingdom of Poland
EUROPE
1801

ICELAND
(Danish)
0
500 MILES
UNITED KINGDOM
NORWAY AND SWEDEN
Christiania
Stockholm
St. Petersburg
Volga
RUSSIA
ASIATIC RUSSIA
DENMARK
Helgoland (Ger.)
HOLLAND
London
Berlin
GERMANY
Paris
FRANCE
Vienna
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
Budapest
ROUMANIA
SERVIA
BULGARIA
Constantinople
BLACK SEA
Caucasus
CASPIAN SEA
Lisbon
Madrid
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
CORSICA
Rome
ITALY
SARDINIA
Gibraltar (Br.)
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
TURKEY
TURKEY IN ASIA
GREECE
Malta (Br.)
CRETE
CYPRUS (Br.)
Marcus C. Morrison, Del.
EUROPE
1901

in questions of social reform, but it must sorrowfully be admitted that the Condition-of-the-People question has not by any means made such great advances since the middle of the century as was confidently hoped would result from placing the government of the country in the hands of the people. The greatest disappointment, perhaps the most serious result of the enfranchisement of the masses and the way in which they have been left with a paralysed and impotent Opposition, is to be found in the field of Foreign Affairs. Whatever may be thought of the aristocratic government at the beginning of the century, or of the middle-class administration of the mid-century, they showed themselves capable of a more intelligent anticipation of events and of a more serious preparation to meet their responsibilities than have characterised the chosen men who have been installed in power at the end of the Century. Seventy years ago foreign policy was in the hands of men who understood at least something of the elementary conditions of the problem with which they were dealing. Lord Castlereagh was not the supreme type of an intelligent statesman, but he had the Duke of Wellington at his elbow, and even Lord Castlereagh, having lived through the great Napoleonic wars, knew something of the forces that dominated foreign politics. Lord Salisbury himself, at the last Guildhall banquet, laid his finger upon the fatal difference between then and now. He said:—"The point we have to bear in mind is that, although Governments may have an appearance and even a reality of pacific intention, their action is always liable to be superseded by the violent and vehement operations of mere ignorance, which acts with regular Governments as much as it acted with those of the Transvaal and of China. We cannot be certain that any Government will not yield its powers to the less educated and less enlightened classes by whom more and more in many countries of the world public affairs are being governed."

And in no country in the world, he might have added, is this so true as in our own. The Nineteenth Century, which began under the calm, calculating intellect of Jeremy Bentham, has in its last years established the Man in the Street as the supreme arbiter of questions of peace and war. This evolution is more serious in Britain, because the man in the street, who is often a mere brawler of the taproom, is not steadied by the pressure of immediate and direct taxation, or by a still more terrible reminder in the shape of personal military service. The swashbuckler of the music-hall is under no danger of being compelled to risk his life as the immediate result of an abandonment to the delirium of Jingoism. This is an old evil which Coleridge pointed out in one of the most famous of his poems, nearly a hundred years ago:—

> Thankless, too, for Peace
> (Peace long preserved by fleets and perilous seas)
> Secure from actual warfare, we have lived
> To swell the war-whoop, passionate for war!
> We, this whole people, have been clamorous
> For war and bloodshed: animating sports
> The which we pay for a thing to talk of
> Spectators and not combatants.

What wonder is it that many amongst us who have seen the wild excesses of this unrestrained and irresponsible temper, should have begun to question whether anything short of the terrible visitation of an invasion, or the sharp yoke of universal compulsory military service will give to the Man in the Street any sense of the reality and the responsibilities of war.

Looking over the Century as a whole, and noting the gain of it and the loss, there is evident one tendency which makes for righteousness and peace. That is the gradually increasing recognition on the part of European nations that their common interests in the general peace are often greater than their special interests in any particular question. This principle first emerged into general diplomatic recognition, and got itself stated in black and white in the terms of a European Treaty at the close of the Crimean War. The Treaty of Paris of 1856, among many provisions which were ephemeral and even mischievous, contained one clause of perennial value. It is that which asserts the principle of the European Concert —"that inchoate Federation of Europe," to quote Lord Salisbury's phrase—and binds all the signatories to the Treaty to forswear private interests and isolated action in their dealing with all questions arising out of the decay of Turkey. This principle had previously attained to partial recognition in the discussions which had taken place from time to time at different stages in the decomposition of the Ottoman Empire. A kind of European Concert presided over the resurrection of Greece. A similar international understanding provided for the settlement of the possession of Egypt as tributary of the Sultan; but it was not until 1856 that the European Concert formally came into being. Therein we have the germ of the United States of Europe, and a germ which since then has shown continually increasing tokens of vitality. By virtue of that principle, Russia was compelled to submit the Treaty of San Stefano to the Congress of Berlin; and although we at the same time cynically violated the very principle

EARL OF SHAFTESBURY.
1801–1885.

ELIZABETH FRY.
1780–1845.

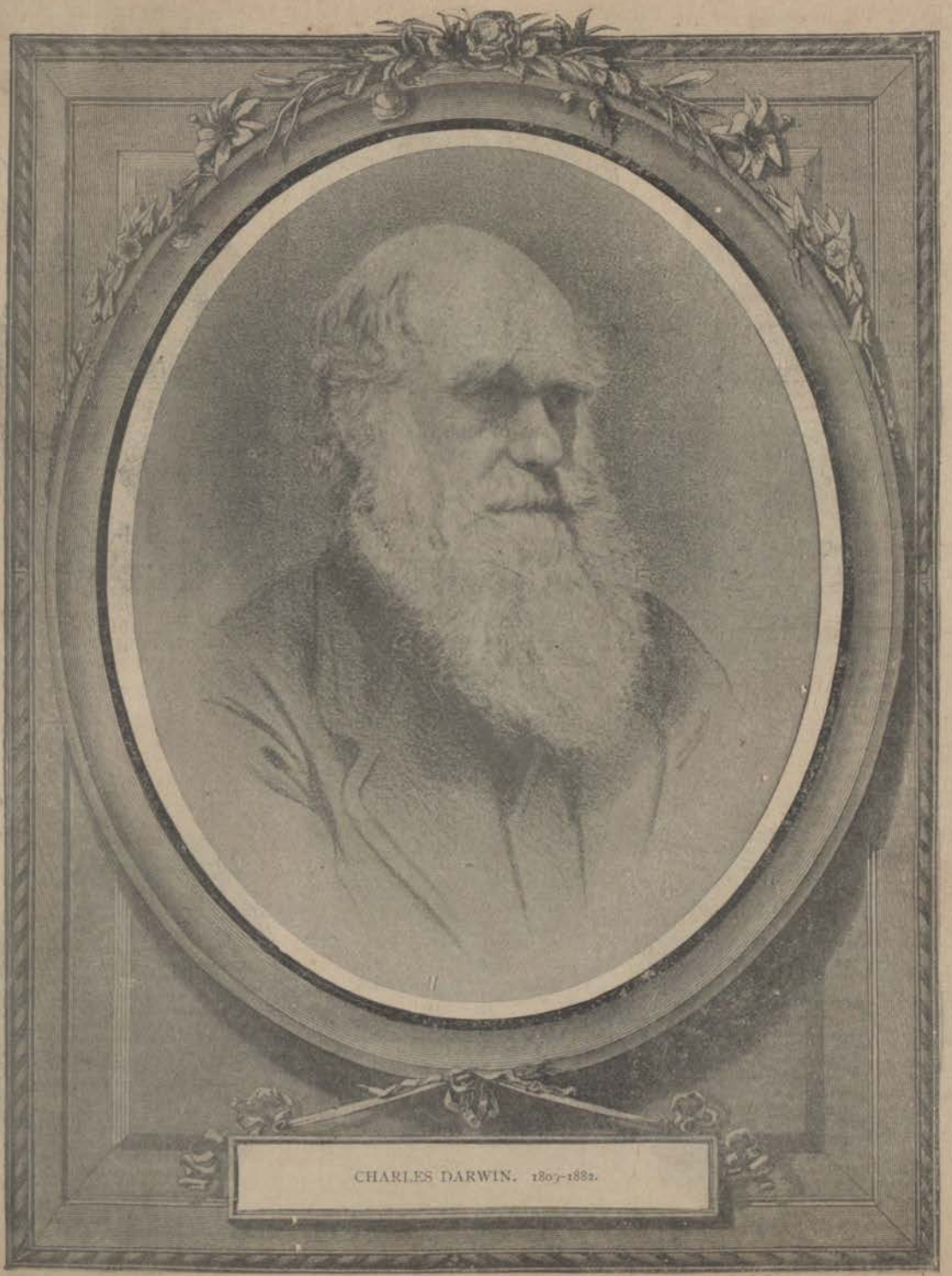
FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE.
Born 1820.

WILLIAM WILBERFORCE.
1759–1833.

THOMAS CLARKSON.
1760–1846.

WALTER THEOBALD MATHEW.
1790–1856.

PHILANTHROPISTS.



CHARLES DARWIN. 1809-1882.

which we were publicly championing by concluding a secret agreement with the Sultan by which we filched Cyprus, that was unfortunately only too much in accordance with the regular practice of British Jingoism. Since 1870, hardly a year has passed by in which the principle of the European Concert has not been invoked for the settlement of the differences and the removal of the dangers which might have brought about war. In the latter years of the century, this principle of Concert for deliberation has undergone development, and in the case of Crete we had Concert, not merely for deliberation, but for executive action. Until the last decade of the century, the principle of the European Concert was practically confined to questions of the near East. At the close of the war between China and Japan, the principle was suddenly extended to embrace the affairs of the Far East. It was first employed in order to deprive Japan of her conquests on the Asiatic Continent. England stood aloof, but this interdict was imposed by Russia, Germany, and France. Since then not only England, but even the United States of America, Italy, and Austria, and other nations, have been compelled to act as a unit in dealing with the problems of the Far East. The Concert there is at present in its infancy, and it is in very imperfect condition, but the imminence of a common danger produced for a time a semblance of international unity, the like of which has not been witnessed since the Crusades. As the German Emperor stated, in the dithyrambic speech which he addressed to the Reichstag after the Chinese massacres, these tidings of horror united where otherwise there was divergence. All the nations against which this unparalleled onslaught was directed drew close together. Their sons fought with one mind and shoulder to shoulder, and even as the standards yonder float side by side, so also the Governments show themselves in council animated by one sole wish to restore an ordered state of things as speedily as possible, and, after the punishment of the chief culprits, to avert a recurrence in the future of such a disturbance of the peace of the world.

We have, therefore, an internationalism of diplomacy, and an internationalism of finance. In the last year of the Century, the moment seemed propitious to many to attempt to form an International Union of all those who are in favour of imposing some moral restraint upon the action of the Governments of the world. Whether this germ of independent effort which found expression in the decision to create an International Union for the organisation of the forces which make for peace and fraternity in every country, will have within it vitality sufficient to make it one of the influences which will powerfully affect the evolution of human history in the Twentieth Century, remains to be seen. At present all we can do is to note it as a sign of the times, and to express a hope that its results may, to some extent at least, realise the hopes or aspirations of its founders.

If the first part of the Century was dominated by the genius of Napoleon, in its closing years the influence of Darwin was not less in the ascendant. The doctrine of Evolution, with which his name is most prominently identified, may be regarded as the Master Dogma of the Century. Its subtle influence is to be felt in every department of life. It has profoundly modified our conceptions of creation, and it is every day influencing more and more our ideas of morality. More than a generation before Darwin's "Origin of Species" had appeared, Hegel, the crown of the series of idealistic philosophers which began with Kant, had elaborated his conception of the entire universe as one vast system of development (Entwickelung). His philosophy began in the blankest abstractions of thought; but, whatever may be said of its speculative validity, it certainly secured as a practical result that every branch of science, physical or mental, which wishes to be taken seriously must pursue the historical method. So the Transcendental idealism of Germany ended by compelling men to study facts and to trace how these facts actually came to be; it imposed on all investigators its conviction that a thing could only be truly known as known in and through its becoming. And just as Transcendentalism in Germany issued in driving men to the tracing of the concrete processes of actual life, so Materialism in England passed into and passed away into the evolutionary view of the universe, verified in part by Darwin and systematised by Herbert Spencer, in which the universe ceases to be regarded as dead matter, but is seen to be in all its parts and in all its forces alive—one life in indefinitely various manifestations.

Professor Huxley, in his last published utterance, gave vigorous and characteristic expression to his conviction of the antagonism between the cosmic process that produces the survival of the fittest, and the ethical laws which are recognised by civilized mankind. But the confusion between the two words "fittest" and "best" leaves a legacy of evil for the coming century. That what is ethically the best may be the unfittest for survival in the struggle for existence is unfortunately too true. But it is usually assumed that that which is fittest or best adapted by its nature to its environment, and therefore most likely to survive, is necessarily the best, whereas from an ethical point of view

it is often the worst. The ignoring of that distinction will lead ere long—is already leading—to a disregard of many of the best and noblest principles upon which our pious forefathers have acted. The Survival of the Fittest is closely allied to the elimination of the unfit. The scientific verification of the iron laws by which nature grinds out the weak, the defective, and the unfit, was certain to produce a tendency on the part of many men to readjust the laws and usages of society to the laws of nature. Why take such pains to preserve the sickly sufferer? Why pay such extreme regard to life as to forbid the summary extinction of all infants that cannot pass a certain standard of vital stamina? Why hesitate in consigning to a lethal chamber all idiots, lunatics, and hopeless incurables? And in the larger field of national politics, why should we show any mercy to the weak? Might becomes right. The unfit have no claim to survive. Wars of extermination seem to receive the approbation of nature. Mr. Rhodes is a Darwinian politician, although his loyal application of the dogma is checked by many considerations, some personal, others those of his environment. Nietzsche may be regarded as the first thinker to give the new tendency its full scope. We need not fear that mankind will take Nietzsche "neat." But it seems by no means improbable that the Twentieth Century will be brought up in its earlier years on Nietsche and Water.

The Nineteenth Century was brought up on a much humaner doctrine. The French Revolution was not exactly made with rose-water. But the impulse behind it was distinctly humanitarian. Its apostle was Jean Jacques Rousseau, a sentimental idealist, to whom men of blood and iron were abhorrent, and who was by them abhorred. Among those who combated the Revolution and who ultimately succeeded in trampling it under, were men as sentimental as Rousseau, and who in their way were as devoted to a humanitarian ideal as any Revolutionist who cut notches with the guillotine to mark the progress towards Millennial blessedness. The Sun of the Century rose, as it has set, in blood. It was the Century of Napoleon and of Bismarck, nevertheless it was pre-eminently a Humanitarian Century.

Even its wars have been largely prompted by humanitarian emotion. The War for the Liberation of Greece, which brought the Russians to Adrianople and sank the Turkish fleet at Navarino, was a war prompted by sympathy for the victims of Ottoman oppression. So, emphatically, was the War waged in 1877–78, as the result of the Bulgarian atrocities, and so, to come down to a still later date, was the American War for the Liberation of Cuba. In all these cases the appeal was to the sentiment of pity and to the sentiment of justice. The waning of the force of this sentiment under the baleful shadow of the doctrine of "Might makes right, the weakest to the wall, and to hell with the unfit!" was conspicuously illustrated in the abandonment of the Armenians to the vengeance of Turk and Kurd, and cynically emphasised by the cordiality with which the Kaiser on his pilgrimage to Jerusalem tarried at Constantinople to eat bread and exchange compliments with the Great Assassin. The same doctrine was not less shamelessly invoked by many to justify the invasion of the territory of the Transvaal, and is even now brought forward to justify the attempted extermination of a nation and the extinction of a nationality which, they maintain, has not justified its fitness to survive in the struggle for existence.

But it is not merely, or even most conspicuously, in wars that this humanitarian characteristic of the Nineteenth Century comes out in bold relief. Whatever evil deeds stand to its discredit, the century can at least claim that it has given the death-blow to Slavery. In 1807 the Slave-trade was prohibited within the British Empire. Twenty-six years later Slavery itself was abolished in all the British colonies. Throughout the whole of the century we have waged unceasing war against the Slave-trade, which still curses the interior of Northern and Central Africa. The oversea slave-trade has been suppressed. The memory of the Abolitionists, of Clarkson * and Wilberforce, of Zachary Macaulay and Thomas Fowell Buxton, sheds a halo round the earlier third of the century, and their example did much to inspire and encourage successive generations of Englishmen down to the last two decades. The last sputter of the old sentiment was raised about the Fugitive Slave Circular in 1875. It is doubtful whether we should have had that if the Liberals had not been in Opposition. There is still an Anti-Slavery Society among us, but its members

* A prophet was not always without honour in his own country and in his own lifetime. On November 22nd, 1838, the Common Council of London voted the Freedom of the City to be presented in a gold box to the venerable Thomas Clarkson, "as a small but grateful testimonial of the Corporation of London to the public services and worth of one who had the merit of originating, and has the consolation of living to witness the triumph of the great struggle for the deliverance of the enslaved African from the most oppressive bondage that ever tried the endurance of afflicted humanity, thereby obtaining for his country the high distinction of separating her commercial greatness from principles incompatible with the exercise of the religion of mercy, and achieving a moral victory, whose trophies shall endure while justice, freedom, the clemency of power, and the peaceful glories of civilization shall have a place in the admiration of mankind."

TSAR ALEXANDER II. 1818–1881.

would probably be the first to admit that we would search in vain to-day among its members for any trace of the fiery glow of self-sacrificing enthusiasm which animated its founders.

The Emancipation of our slaves, and the Suppression of the Slave-trade over-sea, however splendid they may have been, were cast into the shade by the achievements of Russia in the same field. The number of slaves émancipated in 1834 was estimated at about 770,000. The number of serfs emancipated by Alexander II. in 1861 exceeded 23,000,000. Our Emancipation did not come home to the English at all. The slaves all lived in remote colonies. Far otherwise was it with the Russian serfs. They were a domestic institution. Serfage was closely intertwined with the pillars of the Russian state. But despite all opposition Alexander II. persisted in cutting it up by the roots. By his ukase of the 3rd March, 1861, the Russian serf ceased to be a merchandisable chattel, and became a free man and small landowner. Whatever disappointments and imperfections there may have been, no one can deny that the Emancipation of the Serfs deserves a leading place among those great measures which are landmarks in the ceaseless ascent of mankind from the Devil up to God. Nor was this the only service which the Russians rendered to the cause of human liberty. For centuries Tartary had been the stronghold of savages who practised the slave-trade openly and defiantly, and traded too in white men. One by one each of these slave-trading Khanates of the Steppes was compelled to liberate its captives and submit to the Rhadamanthine rule of modern civilisation; until at length, from the Northern Caspian to the slopes of the Pamir, the Slave-trade was rooted out with a ruthless hand.

The third great act of Emancipation which signalised the Century was President Lincoln's proclamation at the beginning of 1863 that slavery had ceased to exist in the United States of America. By that act millions of negroes and persons of negro descent were liberated from a state of bondage which had long been a scandal to the English-speaking world. The long and terrible war between North and South was a fatally exact realisation of the warning prophecy of Lowell a dozen years before:—

> "Out from our land of bondage, 'tis decreed our slaves shall go,
> And signs to us are offered as erst to Pharaoh,
> If we are blind their Exodus, like Israel's of yore,
> Through a Red Sea is doomed to be, whose surges are of gore."

The struggle maintained so heroically for many years, against such heavy odds, by the Abolitionists, of whom Mr. Lloyd Garrison was the most conspicuous member, did much to redeem the young American nation from the reproach of excessive pre-occupation with mere material prosperity. These men and women infused something of the heroic into the veins of the American people, and when the day of crisis came it was found that they had not lived and laboured and suffered in vain.

The liberation of the slaves, which was peacefully effected in Brazil in the last quarter of the Century, completes the story of slave emancipation. It will be well if the Twentieth Century can show at its close so honourable a record of human service.

Speaking of the Nineteenth Century Lord Rosebery said we may say generally that it has been "an Era of Emancipation, considerable though not complete. Nations, as a rule, have been sorted into boundaries more consonant with their aspirations and traditions than was formerly the case. The tyranny of sects, in Britain at any rate, has partially abated. The undue pressure of government has diminished. Slavery has disappeared. All over the world there have been great strides towards freedom; and, though inadequate, they have been so considerable as to produce for a moment an apathy of self-satisfaction."

It is interesting to compare this complacent retrospect by the Liberal ex-Premier in 1900 with the sombre meditations of Thomas Carlyle in 1867 on the same subject. In his famous diatribe, "Shooting Niagara, and After," the Chelsea sage thus delivered himself of his discontent with this Era of Emancipation:—

> All the milleniums I ever heard of heretofore were to be preceded by a "chaining of the Devil for a thousand years"—laying *him* up, tied neck and heels, and put beyond stirring, as the preliminary. You too have been taking preliminary steps, with more and more ardour, for a thirty years back; but they seem to be all in the opposite direction; a cutting asunder of the straps and ties, wherever you might find them; pretty indiscriminate of choice in the matter; a general repeal of old regulations, fetters and restrictions (restrictions of the Devil originally, I believe, for most part, but now fallen slack and ineffectual), which had become unpleasant to many of you; with loud shouting from the multitude, as strap after strap was cut "Glory, glory, another strap is gone!" this, I think, has mainly been the sublime legislative industry of Parliament since it became "Reform Parliament"; victoriously successful, and thought sublime and beneficient by some. So that now hardly any limb of the Devil has a thrum or tatter of rope or leather left upon it; there needs almost superhuman heroism in you to "whip" a garotter; no Fenian taken with the reddest hand is to be meddled with, under penalties; hardly a murderer, never so detestable and hideous, but you find him "insane," and board him at the public expense,—a very peculiar *British* Prytaneum of these days! And in fact, THE DEVIL (he, verily, if you will consider the sense of words) is likewise become an Emancipated Gentleman; lithe of limb, as in Adam and Eve's time, and scarcely a toe or finger of him, *tied* any more. And you, my astonishing friends, *you* are certainly getting

LIBRARY OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

FRIEDRICH FROEBEL. (GERMAN).
1782-1852.

JOHANN PESTALOZZI (SWISS).
1746-1827.

THOMAS HENRY HUXLEY.
1825-1895.

W. E. FORSTER.
1868-1886.

DR. THOMAS ARNOLD.
1795-1842.

EDUCATIONALISTS.

into a millenium, such as never was before, hardly even in the dreams of Bedlam.

Yet, notwithstanding the agreement of these two eminent men, as to the general drift of the century, a not less eminent observer, Mr. Herbert Spencer, has quite recently expressed his conviction that the drift of the times is not towards Emancipation but towards Slavery. In his opinion mankind reached the zenith of liberty about the middle of the century. But the race was not worthy of the boon. Therefore, it has been steadily drifting ever since towards slavery either in the form of the regimentation of militarism or the regimentation of socialism. Which is true? Mr. Spencer or Lord Rosebery?

Of Liberty in the ordinary liberal democratic sense of the word, there is, no doubt, much more to-day than there was when the Century opened. There are, for instance, parliaments actually in existence in Bulgaria, Servia, Greece, and Japan, where no such institutions were thought of a hundred years ago. France is a Republic; universal suffrage prevails in Germany; and parliaments elected by a more less popular franchise exist in Austria, Hungary, Italy, Spain, and Portugal; feudalism has had its comb cut. In Britain the franchise has been lowered and lowered again, seats have been redistributed and vote by ballot established. There has also been a considerable measure of free trade established. Freedom of the press also exists to an extent which in 1801 would have been regarded as almost inconceivable. Religious persecution has been put under the ban, everywhere—except in Russia. Jews and Roman Catholics have been emancipated. The ideal of a Free Church in a Free State has not been realised outside Ireland, the United States, and our colonies; but the universities are no longer used to handicap adversely those who would not bow the knee in the temple of Anglican orthodoxy. Church rates have gone, so has the temporal power of the Pope. All this must be freely and fully admitted.

But on the other hand, Mr. Herbert Spencer is probably right in believing that the drift of legislation in the last half century has been steadily in the direction of curtailing the personal liberty of the citizen. He is no longer under the arbitrary power of monarch or emperor. Jack is as good as his master, at all events, on polling day. But equality is not liberty. It is possible for all men to be equal and for all men to be slaves. And there have, undoubtedly, been two very great infringements, affecting the personal freedom of the individual, not to speak of minor infringements, such as the Factory Acts which only affect certain classes. The first is the limitation placed on the liberty of the individual to be a source of disease to the community. The watchword of Disraeli, which Lord Rosebery has adopted as his own, "*Sanitas sanitatum omnia sanitas*," is emphatically a note of the Nineteenth Century. We have not yet got so far as to compel every man, woman, and child, to take a bath every day, but we are getting on towards that goal. Every Sanitary Act infringes the liberty of the subject, the liberty of the dung-heap, the liberty of the cesspool, the liberty of the slum. Even the sanctity of the person has been invaded by the new inquisitors. It required twenty-five years of horrible agitation to rid the State Book of laws which made the state officials certificators of the fitness of unfortunate women for their shameful trade. Another prolonged agitation was necessary to secure the parent a right to object to the forcible introduction by the lancet of vaccine lymph into the body of his infant child. We even restricted the liberty of widows in India, and forbade them to burn themselves to death.*

Everywhere the central Government or the local authority interferes with personal liberty in the interest of Public Health. A man may now neither build his house nor dig his grave, excepting according to the rules duly laid down by some authority. A benevolent and omnipresent State superintends him at every stage from his cradle to his coffin. It covers him with a penumbra of inspectors, who encompass the free-born citizen like a cloud of mosquitoes every step which he takes through life. "You must not do this, you must not do that, and if you do, behold we are ready to call you to the judgment-seat, where fine and imprisonment await you." No wonder the Liberty Defence League is aghast, and Lord Wemyss and the Hon. Auberon Herbert wail to the fixed stars!

It was the Cholera's doing. No argument but that of Death weighs with the average man. But the visitation of Asiatic cholera in 1832, 1849, 1854, gave the medical officer his chance.

* The practice of Suttee, or of burning or burying alive the widows of Hindoos, is revolting to the feelings of human nature; *it is nowhere enjoined by the religion of the Hindoos as an imperative duty; on the contrary, a life of purity and retirement on the part of the widow is more especially and preferably inculcated*, and by a vast majority of that people throughout India the practice is not kept up nor observed; in some extensive districts it does not exist; in those in which it has been most frequent it is notorious that in many instances acts of atrocity have been perpetrated which have been shocking to the Hindoos themselves, and in their eyes unlawful and wicked. The measures hitherto adopted to discourage and prevent such acts have failed of success, and the Governor-General in Council is deeply impressed with the conviction that the abuses in question cannot be effectually put an end to without abolishing the practice altogether.—*Lord William Bentinck, December 4th*, 1829.

He has, on the whole, been a merciful tyrant. He blundered badly when he supported the C. D. Acts; he blundered more excusably in his persistence in refusing relief to conscientious objectors to Vaccination. But on the whole he has tempered severity with mercy, and has been restrained from too great zeal by the presence of the jerry-builder and the slum owner among the local authorities, who are his paymasters.

The second great interference with individual liberty relates to the Custody and Education of children. Since Mr. Forster's Education Act of 1871, a parent is no longer free to bring up his children in a state of ignorance. The State leaves him absolute liberty as to whether or not a couple may bring children into the world, and how many of them, and with what rapidity. But, having added to the population of the State at their own discretion, they are compelled to comply with certain conditions imposed by the State for the welfare of all its citizens. The child must be sent to school regularly from the age of five till the age of twelve. Schooling is provided for him free. But woe be unto the parent if he does not see to it that his offspring take advantage of the bounty of the State. Education also is under constant Government inspection. The youthful citizen must be examined and certified at every turn. Until he passes a certain standard or attains a certain age, he must not dare to try to earn his living or stay at home to help his mother. That is the theory. But here, again, the severity of the law is tempered by the indiscretion of the magistrate and the inveterate indisposition of the average ratepayer to be hard on a poor mother who keeps her bairn from school to nurse the baby.

If Mr. Forster limited the liberty of the subject on the matter of Education, Mr. Waugh was not less successful in another department of child life. In the last quarter of the nineteenth century he actually succeeded in inducing the Legislature to assail the time-honoured privilege enjoyed by parents of starving, maltreating, and ill-clothing their offspring. The Children's Charter lays down the revolutionary doctrine that, while no man is forced to beget children, after he has at his own discretion become a parent, he shall not have a right to starve them, and if he exercise the *patria potestas* so far as to injure them physically, the benevolent State will provide him with free board and lodgings for three months or even more, in order that he may have leisure to meditate on the standard of parental duty now imposed by a paternal State.

The tendency to greater and greater restriction of the liberty of the individual shows itself chiefly in the way in which the labour of women and children has been regulated by the Factory Acts. Of late the tendency has been manifest to extend these restrictions to labour of all kinds, especially industries that are very dangerous or unhealthy.

One of the unique distinctions of the Nineteenth Century has been the discovery, somewhat tardily made, that a Woman is, after all, an integral part of the modern state, and that on modern democratic principles she cannot logically be refused a share in the privileges and prerogatives of citizenship. The movement in favour of the political emancipation of women may be said to have begun with the publication of Mary Woolstonecraft's famous plea for justice for her sex. It was not, however, until John Stuart Mill published his treatise on the subjection of women that the subject-sex began to wake up. The principle that a human being is entitled to justice, even though she be a woman, then began to gain recognition. Legislation was passed giving her a right to her earnings, even although she had married a man—an act which heretofore deprived her of all protection for her property. In England she was allowed to vote in municipal elections, for guardians of the poor, for members of the school board, and for county councillors. She was allowed not only to elect but to be elected as guardian of the poor, as London vestryman, and member of the school board. For a brief period she was allowed to sit on county councils, but that privilege was afterwards denied her. In America in some Western States, notably in Wyoming, women were allowed to share in all the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship. They sat on juries, voted in all political elections, and helped to elect the President. In New Zealand the cause of female enfranchisement was in an equally forward condition, and the Australian colonies are following the New Zealand lead. In Europe the political enfranchisement of women has not yet come within the range of practical politics. In Russia women have few disabilities which are not shared by men. In France, where there is a strong feminist movement, the feminists, if we may judge from their Congress at Paris during the Exhibition, would recoil in dismay from any proposal to confer the franchise upon their sisters. Women in France would vote the clerical ticket, and between the advanced feminist and the village curé there is but scant sympathy. In Germany there is as yet hardly a demand for the suffrage on the part of women, and not even a glimmering of an idea on the part of the dominant and monopolising military male that the vote should be given to creatures who cannot shoot. The

COUNT VON MOLTKE. 1800–1891.

Socialists, of course, must be excepted. They alone among popular parties at home and abroad are sound upon the question of a woman's right to share equally with men in the full privileges of free citizenship.

The question of the emancipation of women will probably recede into the background if the nations continue their present drift towards militarism. For the monopoly now enjoyed by the male of the right of citizenship dates back from the time when the first duty of the citizen was to fight. The claim of the woman to share in public affairs only emerged when public affairs became more humane, more rational, and more social than the ordering of campaigns, the storming of fortresses, and the slaughter of our fellow creatures. In those days woman was, from the point of view of the State, chiefly important as the breeder of food for powder. Napoleon frankly expressed this view when he said that the best woman was she who had brought forth the greatest number of sons. If, therefore, as some fear, we are on the eve of a great extension of militarism amongst us, when organisation of the means of slaughter will be the chief business of our Governments, we may naturally expect that the feminist cause will in the Twentieth Century show retrogression rather than progress. There is, however, another possibility. Militarism may, after all, be on the eve of its final discomfiture. The lessons of the war in South Africa go far to justify the contentions of the ingenious and indomitable M. Bloch that war as an ultimate court of appeal among the nations has become a practical impossibility. If it costs £100,000,000 to try out a trivial dispute in which the opposing litigant is a petty State like the Transvaal, what would it cost to try a dispute between Russia and Germany, between France and England? The costs are too heavy for litigation to be tolerated. Then, again, the impossibility of fighting rapidly to a finish, and the economic catastrophe which a long war on a great scale would inevitably precipitate, may lead the nations to prefer to resort to the tribunal established at the Hague. In that case we may expect to see a rapid diminution of armaments, and a corresponding increase of the influence of women in the direction of the households of the State. For women naturally assert themselves more in a home than in a barrack or a camp.

The Nineteenth Century has been full of wars and rumours of wars, but it has nevertheless witnessed great progress in the direction of internationalism and of peace. Mr. Balfour remarked when receiving a deputation from the Peace Crusade that for a period of more than eighty years our peace with the civilised nations of Europe has only been disturbed for a single period of about three years. A man of forty at the present time has never seen war in this country. A man of forty in the last century—put that period of forty years where you will in the century—would certainly have seen two wars, might well have seen three, and it might even happen that of those forty years the greater part were spent in war and not in peace. Since then Mr. Balfour and his colleagues have somewhat spoiled the average by engaging in war with the Boers. But his contention in the main is sound.

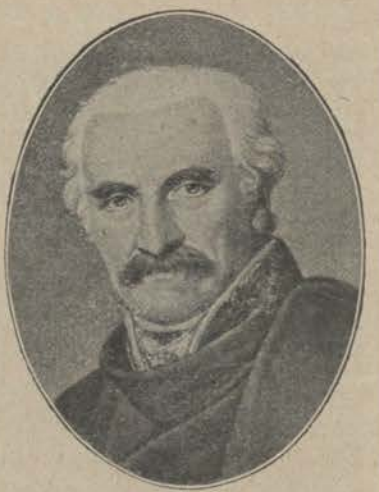
Europe after the prolonged agony of the Napoleonic wars remained at peace for thirty years. From 1815 to 1848 the gates of the Temple of Janus were shut. We had wars, it is true, in Asia, and the French wars in Africa. In 1827–29 there was war between the Sultan and the allied Powers in Greece and Bulgaria, and in 1840 there was war between the Sultan and Mehemet Ali in Syria. Nevertheless Central and Western Europe enjoyed a quarter of a century of unbroken peace. The United States had an even longer spell. They had no war for fifty years. In 1848 the Vienna settlement broke down under the stress of revolutionary passion. Thrones capsized, dynasties perished. Capital after capital was convulsed with civil war. The revolution in Hungary brought the armies of Russia to the borders of Austria. But still the great Peace held. Not even the earthquake of Revolution seemed able to disturb the general peace. Hence it was not altogether surprising that the opening of the Great Exhibition of 1851 was held to be of happy augury, portending the establishment of permanent peace. It is melancholy to look back to the high hopes of millennial bliss which were indulged in just half a century since. Between us and that Exhibition there lie the battlefields of the following wars, excluding from the list all wars with coloured men in Asia or in Africa, and Central and South American wars:—

1854–56. The Crimean war.
1858–59. The Franco-Austrian war in Italy.
1860–64. The American civil war.
1863. The Austro-Prussian war with Denmark.
1866. The Prussian-Italian war with Austria.
1870–71. The Franco-German war.
1870. The Turkish war with Servia, &c.
1877–78. The Russo-Turkish war.
1881. The first Boer war.
1895. The Turko-Greek war.
1898. The Spanish-American war.
1899. The second Boer war.

If we add to these our Afghan and Egyptian campaigns, our three Chinese wars, the Indian Mutiny, the French expeditions to Mexico, Tunis, Tonkin, and Madagascar, the Russian

F. E. TODLEBEN.
DEFENDER OF SEBASTOPOL.
1818–1884.

COUNT VON MOLTKE.
1800–1891.



GEBBARD L. BLÜCHER.
1742–1819.

T. J. "STONEWALL" JACKSON.
1824–1863.

ULYSSES S. GRANT.
1822–1885.

MIKHAIL D. SKOBELEFF.
1845–1882.

FAMOUS WARRIORS.

conquests in Central Asia, endless native wars in Southern and Western Africa, and the wars between Chili and Peru, between China and Japan, we have indeed a melancholy landscape.

Nevertheless, in the midst of this tragic panorama of slaughter there is room for hope. For without taking count of the numerous trivial disputes which have been settled by Arbitration, there have been five questions, any one of which might have involved us in war, which were pacifically settled by a reference to Arbitration. Four of these were disputes between Britain and the United States, and one the dispute between Britain and Portugal as to the ownership of Delagoa Bay. Of these disputes, the most menacing was that which turned upon the extent of our responsibility for the loss occasioned by the depredations of the *Alabama* on the American merchant marine. It was referred to a mixed tribunal of arbitration at Geneva, which amerced us in the sum of 15,500,000 dollars damages. The second was the dispute as to the boundary between the United States and Great Britain over the island of San Juan, near Vancouver's Isle. It was referred to the German Kaiser William, who gave judgment against us. The third relates to the seals in Behring Sea. This was referred to a mixed tribunal sitting in Paris, which gave judgment in our favour. The fourth was the dispute about the frontier between Venezuela and British Guiana, to which the United States made themselves a party. The judgment was practically given in our favour by the unanimous voice of a tribunal composed of representatives of Russia, Britain, and the United States. The Delagoa Bay arbitration, which was referred to the German Emperor, went against us on a somewhat pedantic reading of the international law as to the inalienable character of territorial sovereignty. Besides these leading cases, there have been many other Arbitrations, but none of them involved questions that endangered peace, although of course any one of them might, if unsettled, have provoked contention, the end of which might have been war.

The culminating point of the pacific movement of the Nineteenth Century was reached at the Conference of the Hague held in the spring and early summer of 1889 at the invitation of the Russian Emperor Nicholas II. This Conference not merely unanimously affirmed the determination of all the Governments represented—including every independent Government in the world, excepting those of South and Central America, the Dutch Republics of South Africa, and the King of Abyssinia—to aid with all their strength the amicable settlement of international conflicts. For this purpose they drew up, signed, and subsequently ratified a Convention providing for the general and regular organisation of arbitral procedure. This Convention for the maintenance of the general peace provides, first, for the use of good offices and mediation; secondly, for the establishment of International Commissions of Enquiry; thirdly, for the establishment of a permanent Court of International Arbitration, and, fourthly, it lays down a complete code of procedure for International Arbitration. The Convention remains on record as one of the most valuable legacies which the Nineteenth Century will leave to its successor. Unfortunately the British Government, which had taken a leading and honourable part in promoting the adoption of the Arbitration Convention, flatly refused to utilize the principle of arbitration as a mode of settling its dispute with the South African Republic. President Kruger from first to last implored Her Majesty's Ministers to permit all outstanding difficulties to be settled by arbitration rather than by the sword. Even in his Ultimatum he repeated that appeal. It was rejected, and to that refusal to apply the Hague Convention we owe the war. It may be argued that the disastrous consequences which have followed that appeal to the sword, and the ruinous expenditure of blood and gold which it entailed, were needed, in order to emphasise the importance of the work of the Hague Conference. The Conference wrote up with international authority before the eyes of all men, "Arbitration, this is the way—walk ye in it!" And Great Britain has added, "If ye rebel and refuse to walk in the way of arbitration you will be fined £100,000,000 and lose 10,000 lives, as a penalty for going to war even with a small nationality numbering 250,000 all told."—*Q. E. D.*

The Conference also registered the humaner temperament of the close of the century by solemnly interdicting certain barbarities in war which it placed under the anathema of the civilised world. Among these practices were most of the favourite measures of severity employed by invading armies in hostile territory. Looting, for instance, was sternly forbidden; private property was declared to be inviolable; for all goods taken from the inhabitants of an invaded country receipts or payment must be made; no attack must be made upon dwelling-houses; no collective penalties must be inflicted upon persons who cannot be considered collectively responsible. No pressure must be put upon the people to take the oath to the invader; in short, all the measures employed by British generals in the Transvaal were condemned in advance by the Conference in which the British Government took a leading part. Here, again, the justice and the expediency of the Rules laid

NICHOLAS II. OF RUSSIA.

down by the Conference are being painfully demonstrated by the utter failure of the savagery let loose in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State to secure the submission of the Boers. To have demonstrated that such cruelty is not only a crime but a blunder may be reckoned among the unintentional services which Great Britain has rendered to Humanity in the closing year of the Nineteenth Century.

The possibility of effecting vast political changes in distant continents has been due to one of the most conspicuous achievements of the Nineteenth Century. The redistribution of the area of Continents was rendered easy because the White Man had previously conquered the Sea. It is true that from the days when Solomon sent his argosies to Ophir, the sea has been the highway of travel, of trade, and of conquest. But not until this century was the Subjugation of the Sea complete. The wayward wind was always an element which in previous centuries constantly baffled the calculations of moderns. The defeat of the Spanish Armada is but one of a vast number of similar designs of ambitious statesmen which miscarried because they could not command the winds. The Nineteenth Century has not given mankind the empery over the winds. The sceptre of Æolus can be grasped by no mortal. But it has enabled us by the aid of steam to be independent of wind or tide. It is difficult, not to say impossible, for the men of to-day to realise how great a change this has made, what an element of stability and certainty it has introduced into our communications over sea. Of late there has been no end of complacent chuckling over the fact that we have moved, without any apparent strain, 200,000 men 6000 miles across the sea. But poor, bankrupt, distracted Spain had outdone this feat years before, and had found no difficulty in ferrying 250,000 men across the Atlantic to Cuba, where they failed as utterly to crush the rebellion as we appear to be failing in a similar enterprise in South Africa. The fact is that, given the absence of any hostile ships, the wind and the waves and the weather combined, no longer count as serious obstacles in the transshipment of armies.* The ocean highway is almost as safe as *terra firma*. Steamers arrive punctual to time as railway trains, and it is extremely rare that any of our modern Leviathans founder in mid-ocean.

From the first days of navigation down to 1801, man had but two methods of propelling himself along the surface of the water—by oars and by sails. When the wind failed him, he relied upon the strong arm of the galley-slave, who, chained to his oar, has remained for all time as the supreme type of unceasing and monotonous labour. But in 1801 began the great revolution which made man master of the main. It was in that year that the first experiment in the propulsion of a boat by steam-power was tried on the Thames. Six years later, Robert Fulton started the *Clermont* as a passenger steamer between New York and Albany. In 1812 the *Comet*, a 4-H.P. paddle-wheel steamer began to ply between Glasgow and Greenock.* It was not for seven years more that a steamer was constructed to cross the Atlantic. In 1819 it started from New York, and reached Liverpool after a passage of 26 days. In 1836 the first screw steamship made its appearance, and the same year the *Great Western* of 1340 tons and 400 H.P. broke the Atlantic record by steaming from Bristol to New York in 14 days. From that day down to the closing years of the century, the rate of speed and the dimensions of the ships have been continually increased, until we have now the *Deutschland*, which has made the record run across the Atlantic from

* The political result of the application of steam to navigation is even yet but dimly perceived. It has, among other things, rendered possible the maintenance of the ocean-severed Empire of Britain. But, like the Suez Canal, it was at one time regarded as inimical to the safety of the Empire.

For instance, on January 4th, 1848, the *Morning Chronicle* published a letter on national defences addressed to Sir John Burgoyne by the Duke of Wellington, in January, 1847: ". . . . You are aware that I have for years been sensible of the alteration produced in maritime warfare and operation by the application of steam to the propelling of ships at sea. . . . I have in vain endeavoured to awaken the attention of different administrations to this state of things, as well known to our neighbours as it is to ourselves. . . . I have examined and reconnoitred over and over again the whole coast from the North Foreland, by Dover, Folkestone, Beachy Head, Brighton, Arundel, to Selsey Bill near Portsmouth, and I say that, excepting immediately under the fire of Dover Castle, there is not a spot on the coast on which infantry might not be thrown on shore at any time of the tide, with any wind and in any weather, and from which such body of infantry, so thrown on shore, would not find, within the distance of five miles, a road into the interior of the country through the cliffs, practicable for the march of troops."

* Notice of the sailing of the first British steamboat:—

THE STEAM PASSAGE BOAT, THE "COMET."

Between GLASGOW, GREENOCK, and HELENSBURGH, for Passengers only.

"The subscriber having, at much expense, fitted up a handsome vessel to ply upon the River Clyde, between Glasgow and Greenock, to sail by Power of Wind, Air, and Steam, he intends that the vessel shall leave the Broomielaw on Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays about midday, or at such hour thereafter as may answer from the state of the tide, and to leave Greenock on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays in the morning to suit the tide.

"HENRY BELL.

"*Helensburgh Baths, August 5th*, 1812."

New York to Plymouth in 5 days, 7 hours, and 38 minutes, while at Stettin another ship is being built which will surpass in dimensions the great *Oceanic*, till now the monarch of the shipping world. An American firm also has now under construction several vessels for the Pacific trade, which will be even larger than the *Oceanic*.

The reduction of the duration of the Atlantic passage from twenty-six days to less than six is no small achievement for a single century. It is part of the Titanic task, that of effecting the Shrinkage of the World which Mankind neglected until the end of the Eighteenth Century, but has been labouring at ever since. It is a curious reflection that Louis XIV., whether on sea or on land, could not move more rapidly than Julius Cæsar, or to go still further back, than Nimrod, or the Pharaohs of the first dynasty. During thousands of years no one broke the earlier records of human speed. No man could travel faster than a man could run, than a horse could gallop, or a ship could sail. But the Nineteenth Century has changed all that. The human race has become vastly more mobile. Man mounts a bicycle, and trebles his speed. He climbs into a locomotive, and swoops across the country for hundreds of miles on end at more than a mile a minute. At sea he has more than doubled his speed. The result is, that although space has not been abolished, every one is a nearer neighbour with everybody else. The world has become perceptibly smaller. Nations are to each other now almost as parishes were in the last century. It is true, as Mr. Havelock Ellis makes one of his Utopians remark somewhat bitterly when speaking of the men of the nineteenth century, "although it was the custom at that time to write letters, they had no international postage, that though they were always travelling they had no international coinage, and that though their relations were of more importance than we can conceive—and therefore the need of inter-communication a primary necessity—they had no international language. I do not see how you can speak of civilisation under such conditions." But that such a conception as that of internationalism as a practical reality should have dawned upon the minds of men was due to the success with which steam has been tamed and converted into the carrier of mankind. It was in September 1825, that the first public railway was opened, the Quaker's line between Stockton and Darlington, a short affair of less than 30 miles. Since then the planet has been girdled with railways. The Canadians have put one trunk line across the North American continent. In the United States they have built at least three. Russia is constructing the longest trans-continental line on record, a line which is twice as long as that which united New York and San Francisco. Altogether, according to the latest statistics, the railways of the world are 450,000 miles in length, and in their construction no less a sum than £7,000,000,000 has been expended. The rate of speed seldom averages, even for express trains, more than 50 to 60 miles an hour, but trains have been driven at 75 to 80 miles per hour, and engineers talk of a 100 miles an hour express as one of the triumphs which may be expected in the twentieth century.

Steam was in the ascendant from 1825 to 1875. From 1875 to the end of the Century Electricity has been steadily advancing to the leading position. It seems incredible that Franklin's experiments with his kites only took place at the close of the eighteenth century, and that for the first thirty years of this century Electricity was little more than the mere plaything of experimentalists. But the first electric telegraph was not in use till 1837, and half the century had passed before a submarine cable connected Calais and Dover. The attempt to lay a cable across the Atlantic, which was begun in 1858, was not finally and permanently successful till 1866. Since then there is hardly an ocean that has not been crossed by a deep sea cable. At the close of the century the discovery which is associated with the name of Marconi threatens us with the disuse of all wires and cables. Wireless telegraphy has already been proved possible between Dover and Ostend, a distance of seventy-eight miles, and no one ventures at present to put any limit to the range which may hereafter be found practicable. Electricity as a conveyer of thought has done much more to annihilate space than steam. Messages which last century were conveyed at the maximum speed of twenty miles an hour, are now carried by steam at sixty. But by electricity they are conveyed a thousand miles in a second of time. As by the Telegraph Electricity carried the message, so by the Telephone it conveyed the voice and the spoken word with equal and even greater facility and speed. Scientific men familiar with the law of acoustics and the maximum rate by which sound-waves travel would have denied that it could ever be possible for two persons to converse freely with each other, although one is in Paris and the other in London. Yet it is constantly done, the only limit being the lack of the eight shillings needed for indulging in three minutes' conversation. The use of Electricity as a method of traction is but in its infancy. But already the discovery that it can be collected in storage batteries promises to render horses superfluous for purposes of traction. Wherever an overhead wire

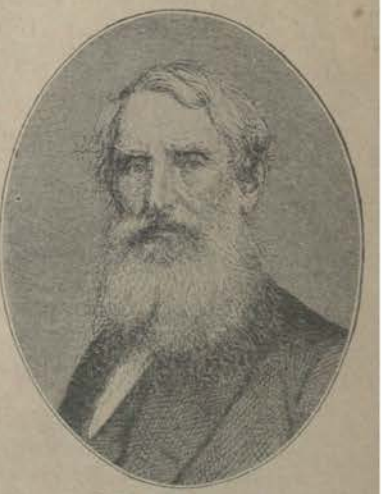
JAMES WATT.
ENGLISH ENGINEER. 1736–1819.

SIR HUMPHRY DAVY.
ENGLISH SCIENTIST.
1778–1829.

SIR CHARLES WHEATSTONE.
ENGLISH PHYSICIST.
1802–1875.

ROBERT STEPHENSON.
ENGLISH ENGINEER. 1803–1859.

LOUIS J.M. DAGUERRE.
FRENCH ENGINEER.
1789–1851.



SAM. F. B. MORSE.
AMERICAN ELECTRICIAN.
1791–1872.

THOMAS A. EDISON.
AMERICAN ELECTRICIAN. BORN 1847.

PROMINENT INVENTORS.

can be slung for the driving of trolley cars, the tram track knows the horse no more. At present there are in the United Kingdom three million horses. It will be interesting to see how many remain in 2001. The Electric Motor has not yet begun to compete seriously with the Steam engine. In underground railways its superior convenience, thanks to its smokelessness, will secure it the preference. Whether it will ever succeed in ousting the Steam engine from the ordinary work of the railway is a problem for the solution of which the requisite data are lacking.

As the lightning has been pressed into the service of man for the purpose of general carrier, it is not surprising that it should have been utilised as an illuminant. Down to the end of last century, the wax or tallow candle and oil lamp held their own. Our grandfathers dispelled the darkness in very much the same fashion as the ancient Egyptians and Chinese, who used snuffers and fashioned lamps six thousand years ago. But early in the Nineteenth Century the revolution against the monopoly of the candle and the lamp began with the introduction of Gas. The first practical use of coal gas as an illuminant occurred in Golden Lane, London, in 1807. For seventy years after that the Reign of Gas was universal in cities. The discovery of Petroleum in America and beyond the Caucasus, gave a fillip to the lamp. Even now it is probable more than two-thirds of the human race light themselves to bed with paraffin or petroleum lamps or candles. But gas found itself threatened in the last quarter of a century by a formidable rival in the shape of electricity. Now the arc light is coming into general use for the lighting of streets, while the incandescent lamp is the light of luxury everywhere. Gas, however, still keeps up the struggle, and it was noticeable that in the gardens of the Paris Exhibition and the Champ de Mars the soft brilliant light of the mantlet-covered gas jet was much brighter and more pleasant than any electric light in the grounds.

In the last quarter of the century a new illuminant has entered the field, and confidently attempted, if not to displace coal-gas and electricity as a means of lighting, at least to press them hard in various departments. This is acetylene gas, which as yet has been but little used in Great Britain, save for bicycle lamps, and even in this humble sphere it leaves much to be desired; but in Germany the use of acetylene gas is spreading rapidly. The Government railways use it for the lighting of their carriages, and no fewer than twenty-two towns in Germany are said to rely upon it for the lighting of their streets.

In comparison with the great inventions above referred to, it seems like bathos to condescend to such comparatively insignificant inventions as the Lucifer-match. Yet how utterly at a loss we should feel if to-morrow we were suddenly reduced to the tinderbox of our grandfathers? The Century has abounded in inventions of all kinds, but none are so constantly in evidence as the match. The invention of the sewing-machine may be mentioned as ranking perhaps next after that of the match for the extent to which it has become a necessity of everyday life.

The Nineteenth Century is famous as having witnessed the birth of Photography. It began with the century. In 1802 Wedgwood and Davy discovered that light would photograph pictures on glass, but neither of them could divine how to fix the photographs. Twelve years later a Frenchman solved that difficulty, but it was not until 1839 that another Frenchman, Daguerre, invented the Daguerreotype.* Ten years later the discovery of the collodion film began the popular use of the sun as portrait-painter and artist-in-ordinary to the great public. Since then nearly every year of the century has witnessed some fresh advance in the art of Photography, some fresh application of the photographic process. The exact accuracy of photographic records, the marvellous sensitiveness of the photographic film, have immensely increased the boundaries of knowledge, especially in the study of the stars. The century has witnessed the invention of the Kinematograph, which renders possible the reproduction of moving pictures instantaneously photographed with a degree of reality which heretofore has been inconceivable. The closing year has brought us to the threshold of Colour Photography, the results already attained having far surpassed all expectation. Nor should even the most cursory survey of the triumphs of the century omit a reference to the Röntgen rays, by which we are able to see through opaque substances, and see and photograph the invisible.

The Phonograph, although at present for practical purposes little better than an expensive toy, has succeeded in preserving records of voices and of music in such fashion as to encourage the hope that it may become of some

* September 7th, 1839, M. Daguerre's new invention for taking pictures here was publicly exhibited in the Quai d'Orsay by order of the Minister of the Interior. The *Journal des Débats* described the apparatus and process. The first experiment in England was made on the 13th, when M. St. Croix exhibited the instrument and process in presence of a select party of scientific men and artists. He also succeeded in producing a picture of the place of meeting, No. 7, Piccadilly.—*Annals of the Time.*

SAMUEL C. F. HAHNEMANN.
GERMAN. FOUNDER OF HOMŒOPATHY.
1755–1843.

ISAMBARD K. BRUNEL.
FRENCH ENGINEER. 1806–1859.

BARON W. G. ARMSTRONG.
ENGLISH INVENTOR AND ENGINEER.
BORN 1810.

HIRAM S. MAXIM.
ENGLISH ELECTRICIAN AND INVENTOR.
BORN 1840.

SIR ISAAC PITMAN.
ENGLISH INVENTOR OF STENOGRAPHY.
1813–1897.

VICOMTE FERDINAND DE LESSEPS.
FRENCH ENGINEER. 1805–1894.

PROMINENT INVENTORS, SCIENTISTS AND ENGINEERS.

practical use to mankind. But the realisation of that ideal must be reserved for the Twentieth century. The Nineteenth Century is *par excellence* the century, not of art, but of science: Mr. Havelock Ellis declares that it was emphatically the ugly century. "Of all ages in the world's history, that was indeed the one which shows the least trace of the art instinct." But in Science, in getting to know the secret laws of nature, and in applying them to the use of man, there has been no century like it since the world began. Professor Alfred Russel Wallace, in his most interesting book, "The Wonderful Century," a fascinating survey of a great scientific period by a great man of science, maintains that, "to get any adequate comparison with the nineteenth century, we must take not only preceding centuries, but rather the whole preceding epoch of human history." Dr. Wallace hardly does justice to the discoveries and inventions of prehistoric man in his comparison between the achievements of the Nineteenth Century and those of all previous time. But his summary of "the theoretical discoveries of our time, which have extended our knowledge or widened our conception of the universe," may be quoted with advantage as a careful recapitulation by an eminent scientist of what science has achieved in the Nineteenth Century.

1. The determination of the mechanical equivalent of heat, leading to the great principle of the Conservation of Energy.
2. The Molecular theory of gases.
3. The mode of direct measurement of the Velocity of Light, and the experimental proof of the Earth's Relation.
4. The discovery of the function of Dust in nature.
5. The theory of definite and multiple proportions in Chemistry.
6. The nature of Meteors and Comets, leading to the Meteoritic theory of the Universe.
7. The proof of the Glacial Epoch, its vast extent, and its effects upon the earth's surface.
8. The proof of the great Antiquity of Man.
9. The establishment of the theory of Organic Evolution.
10. The Cell theory and the Recapitulation theory in Embryology.
11. The Germ theory of the Zymotic diseases.
12. The discovery of the nature and function of the white Blood-corpuscles.

After the Locomotive and the Steamship, there is no other invention which has so profoundly modified the lives of men in this century as the invention of the newspaper Printing-Press. Lord Stanhope had invented the Stanhope press in the last year of the eighteenth century, but between 1474, when Chaucer first printed "Ye Game of Chess" at Westminster, and 1814, when the *Times* issued the first steam-printed newspaper issued in this country, there had been comparatively slight improvements in the printing-press. From 1814 down to the present time the rate of progress has been continuous and rapid. In the perfecting of this invaluable adjunct of civilisation, the Americans hold the leading place. It is as long ago as 1858 when Hoe first introduced the press into England. Since then, there have been many revolutionary improvements, but the Americans have kept their lead. In colour-printing for newspaper illustrations, there is nothing that can touch their best work for speed and effect in any capital of the old world. The introduction of stereotyping has rendered possible the multiplication of impressions at a rate which, in 1801, would have been deemed unthinkable. There are two papers in the world to-day, one in London and one in New York, which print over a million copies between midnight and the departure of the early-morning trains. Both of them, like the *Petit Journal*, the only other millionaire of circulation, are sold at a halfpenny. The first halfpenny evening paper published in England was the *Echo* (1868), and the first morning halfpenny newspaper, *The Northern Echo*, appeared in 1870 in Darlington. The introduction of the halfpenny paper has modified English journalism. It has done much to bring the British Monte Carlo, the race-course with its lists of odds, home to the masses of the people. The penny paper began the task. The halfpenny paper has carried it much further. Mr. John Burns, M.P., who is of, and for, and among the people if ever man was, has recently expressed his deliberate conviction that "if ever the British people lose their moral anchorage and drift on political rocks, or be swallowed up in the maëlstrom of incapacity, lack of moral fibre, and decayed responsibility and duty, it will be due to the cheap, the nasty, and the vulgar Press. What was once an unsophistical people before the introduction of that Press, responsive to noble appeals, have had their character frittered away by the sport that enervates, the gambling that degrades." Nevertheless and notwithstanding, the reduction of the paper duties (1861) which rendered the cheap newspaper possible, is rightly regarded as one of the greatest achievements which the nation owes to the financial genius of Mr. Gladstone. When the century dawned, newspapers were few and far between. Probably all the daily papers printed in the world in 1801 fell far short of the daily issue of the papers in 1900 in the city of Chicago, which, a hundred years ago, did not even exist. That newspapers are at this moment, in the opinion of the most serious observers, the most mischievous agencies for the demoralisation of the people at home by the encouragement of betting, and for endangering peace abroad by their constant appeals to national conceit and imperial ambition, is un-

fortunately true. But that only means that the newspapers have been allowed, by serious men of money and of influence, to fall into the hands of the active agents of the World, the Flesh, and the Devil. Possibly in the Twentieth Century they may wake up to the mischief that has been done before it is too late. The printing-press has become the Pulpit of Civilisation in the Nineteenth Century. It remains to be seen what kind of gospel it will preach in the next hundred years.

It is rather a melancholy confession to have to make, but it is nevertheless true, that two of the worst frauds of the century were practiced upon the British public through the agency of the *Times*. The oracle of Printing-House Square in both instances fell into the trap by its over-zeal in the cause of Imperialism. The first and most scandalous incident was the publication of a forged letter imputing to Mr. Parnell complicity in the Phœnix Park murders. It appeared in the *Times* in facsimile April 18th, 1887. It ran as follows :—

"15/5/82. I am not surprised at your friend's anger, but he and you should know that to denounce the murders was the only course open to us. To do that promptly was plainly our best policy. But you can tell him and all others concerned that, though I regret the accident of Lord F. Cavendish's death, I cannot refuse to admit that Burke got no more than his deserts. You are at liberty to shew him this, and others whom you can trust also, but let not my address be known. He can write to House of Commons. Yours very truly,

"CHAS. S. PARNELL."

It was subsequently proved before the Parnell Commission that this letter was forged by one Piggott, who hoaxed the *Times* in order to raise a little money by selling forged documents which the *Times* eagerly bought in the hope of destroying Mr. Parnell. Piggott confessed, and blew out his brains. The *Times* paid £5000 to Mr. Parnell as damages for the libel. The other fraud of the century also made its first appearance in the *Times*. This was the famous "women and children" letter, prepared in advance by the conspirators against President Kruger in order to be used as a pretext to justify the Jameson Raid. The letter was introduced as follows :—

"The following letter, signed by the leading inhabitants of Johannesburg, was sent on Saturday to Dr. Jameson, Mafeking."

It is a long letter, beginning—

"The position of matters in this State has become so critical that we are assured that, at no distant period, there will be a conflict between the Government and the Uitlander population."

It concluded as follows :—

"What we have to consider is, What will be the condition of things here in the event of conflict? Thousands of unarmed men, women, and children of our race will be at the mercy of well-armed Boers, while property of enormous value will be in the greatest peril. We cannot contemplate the future without the gravest apprehensions. All feel that we are justified in taking any steps to prevent the shedding of blood and to insure the protection of our rights.

"It is under these circumstances that we feel constrained to call upon you to come to our aid. Should a disturbance arise here, the circumstances are so extreme that we cannot but believe that you and the men under you will not fail to come to the rescue of people who will be so situated. We guarantee any expense that may reasonably be incurred by you in helping us, and ask you to believe that nothing but the sternest necessity has prompted this appeal."

This letter was published as a prelude to the announcement :—

"In consequence of this appeal, Dr. Jameson yesterday crossed the Transvaal frontier near Mafeking with seven hundred men, and it is known that he passed Malmani at 5 o'clock this morning.

"No further direct news has been received from the Transvaal."

There was no truth in the letter. The women and children were in no danger. The date was fixed to it by Dr. Rutherfoord Harris, and it was published in the *Times* of January 1st, 1896, as a genuine document. All this was confessed by Dr. Harris before the South African Committee. But no compensation was in this case paid by the *Times*, and the principal actor in the affair has just been elected member for the Monmouth burghs.

No survey of the Century would be complete without some references to its Newgate Calendar of crime and horror. With the exception of the thirty years' peace which found a chronicler in Harriet Martineau, it has been a century in which the Gates of the Temple of Janus have been seldom shut. Compared with the accumulated horrors and abominations which make up even the most civilised war, individual crimes fade into insignificance. Assassination, however, has been a somewhat sinister feature of the Century. Two of the most famous men—both for ever famous for their achievements in the cause of human freedom were rewarded for their service by a violent and bloody death. Abraham Lincoln was stabbed to death by a half-crazy actor, and Alexander the Second killed by the explosion of a bomb thrown by Nihilist conspirators. Abdul Aziz, Sultan of Turkey, was scissored to death in his own palace. King Humbert of Italy was shot dead by an anarchist assassin in the presence of his troops. The Empress Elizabeth of Austria was stabbed to death on Lake Geneva by a member of the

SIR CHARLES LYELL.
GEOLOGIST. 1797-1875.

GEORGE CUVIER.
FRENCH NATURALIST. 1769-1832.

SIR JOHN HERSCHEL.
ASTRONOMER. 1792-1871.

MICHAEL FARADAY.
CHEMIST AND ELECTRICIAN. 1791-1867.

BARON F. H. A. VON HUMBOLDT.
GERMAN NATURALIST AND PHILOSOPHER.
1769-1859.

LORD KELVIN.
NATURAL PHILOSOPHER. BORN 1824.

ALFRED RUSSEL WALLACE.
NATURALIST. BORN 1822.

LORD LISTER.
MEDICAL REFORMER. BORN 1827.

GREAT SCIENTISTS.

same fraternity. The Napoleons bore a charmed life, but the bombs employed for their destruction wrought havoc among innocent bystanders. The life of our Queen has been repeatedly attempted, so has that of the Prince of Wales. Prince Michael of Servia, Lord Mayo, Viceroy of India, President Carnot of France, and President Garfield of the United States all met death at the hand of the assassin. So did Mr. Perceval, Canovas del Castillo, and General Prim, not to mention a host of less distinguished men, amongst whom should be mentioned the victims of the Phœnix Park murder, Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke.

These crimes of individuals, although numerous, one and all failed to excite the horror of the civilized world to anything like the same extent to which it was aroused by the horrors of the Indian Mutiny, the atrocities of the Turks in Scio, Bulgaria, and Armenia, and in a lesser degree by the suffocation of 500 Arabs in the caves of Algeria by Marshal, then Colonel, Pèlissier, and St. Arnaud. 650 Arabs on June 19th, 1845, took refuge in a cavern in Algeria. They refused to surrender, and they were deliberately smoked to death. A blazing fire was kindled at the mouth of the cave. "The cries of the unhappy wretches who were being suffocated were dreadful, but gradually nothing was heard beyond the crackling of faggots. The troops entered and found 500 dead bodies. About 150, who still breathed, were brought into the fresh air, but a number of them died afterwards." The other horrors are much better known and much more vividly remembered. The massacre of the Greeks "On Scio's Rocky Isle" led to the deliverance of Greece. The horrors of Batak liberated Bulgaria. But, alas! the assassination of the Armenians has had no result in the deliverance of Armenia.

The shudder of horror occasioned by the Bulgarian atrocities in 1876 shattered the Anglo-Turkish alliance, and remodelled the map of the East. The Turks, in May, 1876, repressed a Bulgarian insurrection with such atrocity as to horrify Europe. The *Daily News* reported this on June 23. Mr. Disraeli sneered at the story as "coffee-house babble." But on July 19th, Mr. H. Baring was sent to investigate the matter. He reported that 12,000 persons had been killed in one sandjak. Referring to the case of Batak, "the most fearful tragedy that happened during the whole insurrection," Mr. Baring substantially confirmed the most harrowing details which the *Daily News* had previously published. He wrote: "I visited this valley of the shadow of death on July 31, more than two months and a half after the massacre, but still the stench was so overpowering that one could hardly force one's way into the churchyard. In the streets at every step lay human remains, rotting and sweltering in the summer sun—here a skull of an old woman, with the grey hair still attached to it; there the false tress of some unhappy girl, slashed in half by a yataghan, the head which it adorned having been probably carried off to be devoured by some of the dogs, who up to this have been the only scavengers. Just outside the village I counted more than sixty skulls in a little hollow, and it was evident from their appearance that nearly all of them had been severed from the bodies by axes and yataghans. Enough, I think, has been said to show that to Achmet Agha and his men belongs the distinction of having committed perhaps the most heinous crime that has stained the history of the present century, Nana Sahib, alone, I should say, having rivalled their deeds." Mr. Baring added the all-important fact that "for this exploit Achmet Agha had received the Order of the Medjidie."

Bad as were the horrors of Bulgaria, those of Armenia were even worse. They were more deliberate, they lasted longer, and they were followed by no retribution. The heart of Britain was profoundly stirred. But Lord Salisbury, with Lord Rosebery's hearty support, recoiled from any attempt to avenge the wrongs of the slaughtered Armenians. Mr. William Watson in vain tuned his indignant lyre:—

"Heaped in their ghastly graves they lie, the breeze
Sickening o'er fields where others vainly wait
For burial: and the butchers keep high state
In silken palaces of perfumed ease.
The panther of the desert, matched with these,
Is pitiful; beside their lust and hate,
Fire and the plague-wind are compassionate,
And soft the deadliest fangs of ravening seas.
How long shall they be borne? Is not the cup
Of crime yet full? Doth devildom still lack
Some consummating crown, that we hold back
The scourge, and in Christ's borders give them room?
How long shall they be borne, O England? Up,
Tempest of God, and sweep them to their doom!"

But the "Tempest of God" stirred not. Abdul the Damned lived tranquilly to enjoy on his Jubilee the felicitations of all the Sovereigns of Christendom.

How horrible were those Armenian massacres, which may almost be said to have brought down the grey hairs of Mr. Gladstone in sorrow to the grave, may be imperfectly realised by the following description of the scenes witnessed in one district, the neighbourhood of Sassoun, in the early autumn of 1894, where the Turks and Kurds began a campaign of butchery that lasted some twenty-three days, or, roughly, from the middle of August to the middle of September:—

No respect was shown to age or sex. Men, women, and infants were treated alike, except that the women were subjected to greater outrage before they were

FERDINAND VII. SPAIN. 1784–1833.

ISABELLA II.
SPAIN. BORN 1830.

ALFONSO XII.
SPAIN. 1857–1885.

ALFONSO XIII.
KING OF SPAIN. BORN 1886.

SULTAN MURAD V.

SULTAN ABDUL HAMID II.
BORN 1842.

SULTAN ABDUL AZIZ.
1830-1876.

RULERS OF TWO DECAYING NATIONS.

slaughtered. The women were not even granted the privilege of a life of slavery. For example, in one place three or four hundred women, after being forced to serve the vile purposes of a merciless soldiery, were taken to a valley near by and hacked to pieces with sword and bayonet. In another place about two hundred women, weeping and wailing, knelt before the commander and begged for mercy, but the bloodthirsty wretch, after ordering their violation directed the soldiers to dispatch them in a similar manner. In another place a large company, headed by the priest, fell down before the officers saying they had nothing to do with the culprits, and pleading for compassion, but all to no purpose—all were killed. Some sixty young brides and more attractive girls were crowded into a little church in another village, where they were kept for days as the prey of the soldiers who finally slaughtered them, and a stream of human blood flowed from the church door. To some of the more attractive women in one place the proposition was made that they might be spared if they denied their faith. "Why should we deny Christ," they said, and pointing to the dead bodies of their husbands and brothers before them, they nobly answered, "We are no better than they; kill us too,"—and they died.

Some incidents which excited the horror of the civilised world were thus described by the Rev. Mr. Greene:—

"People were crowded into houses which were then set on fire. In one instance a little boy ran out of the flames, but was caught on a bayonet and thrown back. Children were frequently held up by the hair and cut in two, or had their jaws torn apart. Older children were pulled apart by their legs.

"The Kurds killed people with bullets and daggers, but the soldiers delighted in torture. They put some to death with scissors, cutting them and opening veins in the neck. Others were sawed, others had their tongues cut out, eyes gouged out, and several fingers removed before death. I saw men and women thus mutilated, and they lay about the camp for two hours before they were killed.

"I saw a Turkish sergeant bind an old Armenian head downwards to two or three blanches, and slowly cut him through with an axe. From this hiding-place I saw soldiers torturing Priest Ohannes of Semal, and Priest Der Arakel, my father. Their eyes were gouged out, and they uttered horrible cries, and implored soldiers to put them out of pain. But the soldiers made them dance, and for some time they danced, screaming with pain. Then the soldiers bayoneted them. When the dead were examined the body of the Priest Ohannes, whose corpse had still a rope round the neck, was identified. The eyes had been gouged out, and nose, ears, and lips cut off, and the skin flayed from both sides of the head."

It was the crowning horror of the Century, and the impotence of the Christian Powers before such crimes remains to this day the abiding reproach of Christendom.

The massacre of the English women and children at Cawnpore in the early days of the Indian Mutiny is the only incident which can be named beside this revelry of Turkish savagery. Although it was but on a small scale, it also made mankind shudder, and woke in the British heart a savage lust of vengeance, savagely appeased.

An officer in Havelock's corps thus describes the appearance of Cawnpore when the avenging army entered the town on the 17th July, 1857:—

"I was directed to the house where all the poor miserable ladies had been murdered. It was alongside the Cawnpore Hotel where the Nana lived. I never was more horrified. The place was one mass of blood. I am not exaggerating when I tell you that the soles of my boots were more than covered with the blood of these poor wretched creatures. Portions of their dresses, collars, children's socks, and ladies' round hats, lay about, saturated with blood; and in the sword-cuts on the wooden pillars of the room long dark hair was carried by the edge of the weapon, and there hung their tresses—a most painful sight. I have often wished since that I had never been there, but sometimes wish that every soldier was taken there, that he might witness the barbarities our poor countrywomen suffered. Their bodies were afterwards dragged out and thrown down a well outside the building, where their limbs were to be seen sticking out in a mass of gory confusion."

Our vengeance was taken in kind, in a fashion which sent a thrill through Christendom. An Italian assassin, on being asked to undertake a murder in the regular way of business, inquired whether the man who wanted the job done wished his enemy merely killed, or whether he wished to have him dead and damned? On being questioned, he explained that it was usual, in cases where nothing would satisfy the lust for vengeance but the eternal damnation of the offender's soul, for him to arrange that the fatal blow which severed soul and body should be given at the moment when he had lured the doomed one into an act of mortal sin. Our vengeance was of that kind. We were not content to hang the mutineers. That would not necessarily damn their souls to the hell which they dreaded. But if they were blown to shreds from the muzzles of loaded cannon, they believed their death would be followed by the damnation of hell. Therefore, to slake this Christian nation's thirst for vengeance this was what was witnessed in India on Dec. 31st, 1857:—

"The doomed five," writes a spectator, "were marched to the five fatal guns. They were bound by the arms to the wheels, but their legs were free, and the end man—the only one I could entirely see from my place on the flank—leaned his back against the muzzle, as loungers lean against a mantelpiece. I fixed my eyes intently on that man, not fifty yards away, and in a moment the signal was given. There was a roar, and the whizzing of a bullet, far away from the firing party, a bank of white smoke, and a jet and shower of black fragments, sharp and clear, which leaped and bounded in the air; this, and a fearful sound from the spectators, as if reality so far exceeded all previous fancy, that it was intolerable; then a dead stillness. I walked straight to the scattered and smoking floor before the guns. I first came to an arm, torn off above the elbow, the fist clenched, the bone projecting several inches, bare, then the ground sown with red, grisly fragments, then a black-haired head and the other arm still held together—this was the man I had watched. Close by lay the lower half of the body of the next, torn quite in two, and long coils of entrails twined on the ground. Then a long cloth in which one had been dressed, rolled open like a floor-cloth and on fire. One man lay in a complete and shattered heap, all but the arms; the legs were straddled wide apart, and the smashed body on the middle of them; the spine exposed, the head lay close by, too.

The last body was that of a native officer, who was the arch-fiend of the mutiny; he was a short man with a cruel face. His head had been cut clean off, but the muscles of the neck had contracted round the throat like a frill. His face was half upturned and calm, the eyes shut. I saw no expression of pain on any of them. What had been his body lay on its face, the legs, as usual, not shattered, but all the flesh torn like cloth from a sharp angle in the hollow of the back, off and off, till it merged in one mangled heap."

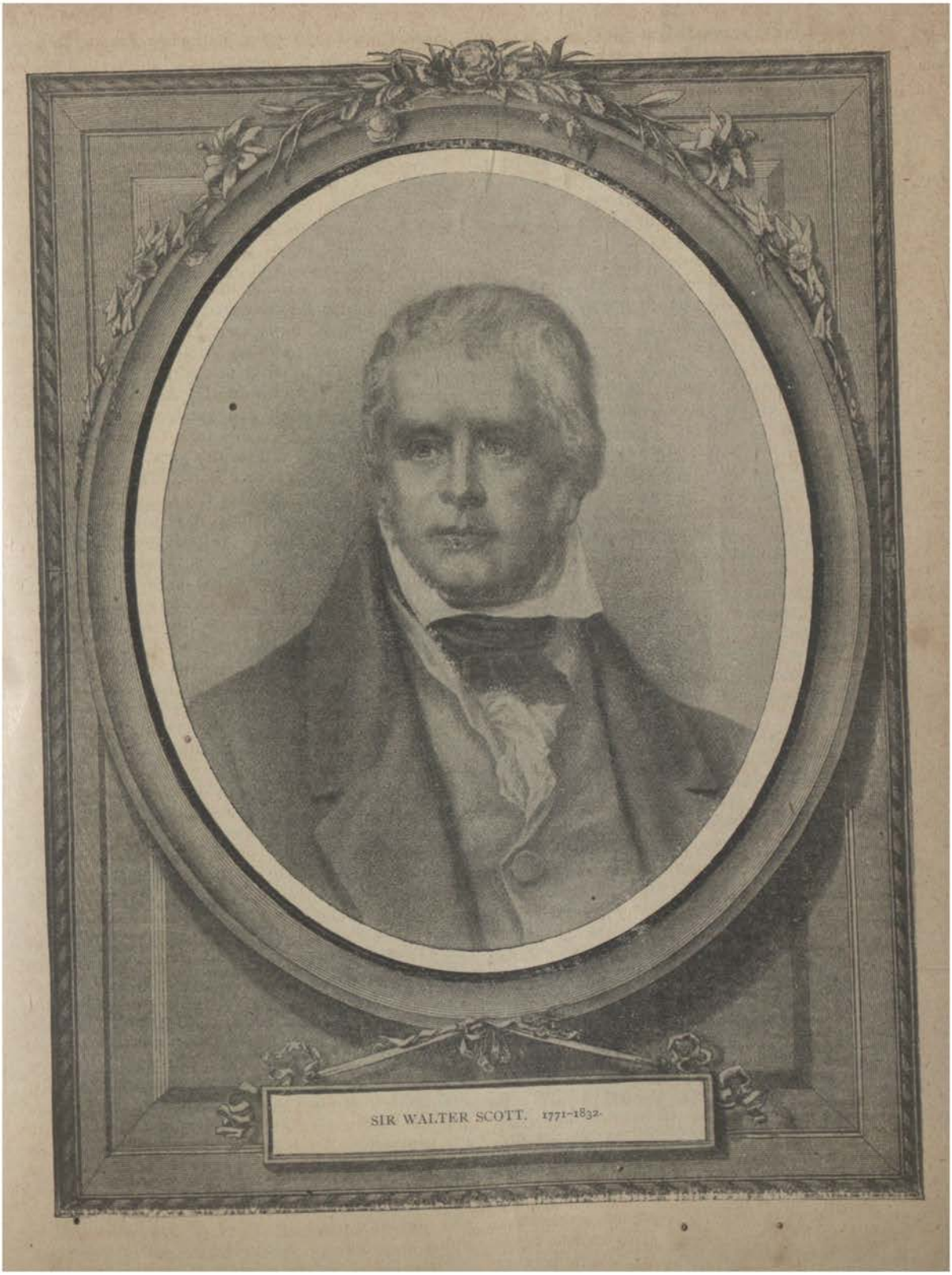
Verily a scene not to be forgotten. It seems ghastly enough now; but, when 1858 was a new year, our people gloated over it with a horrible joy.

The notion that resistance to law or opposition to the will of the authorities can most effectively be dealt with by extreme severity is one of the delusions from which the Nineteenth Century has done much to deliver mankind. When the century began, the doctrine of Rigour as the only remedy was as absolute in our criminal jurisprudence, as it is to-day at the seat of war. The English criminal code in 1801 was a scandal even to the imperfect moral sense of other nations. These islanders, it was well said, "are ferocious like their own mastiffs." Just as the average journalist now clamours for the devastation by fire of the houses of non-combatants who do not sympathise with the invader, so the British Legislature at the beginning of the century insisted on hanging every one who stole anything that was worth more than a shilling. Death and torture by means of the lash and the pillory were the universal panaceas. The pillory, in which citizens were exposed to be mutilated, or sometimes murdered, by the caprice or passion of the mob, was, in the opinion of Lord Chancellor Thurlow, "a restraint against licentiousness provided by the wisdom of past ages." Flogging as a corrective for women was prescribed down to 1820; the pillory flourished until 1837; the stocks were not abolished till 1849. To disembowel traitors alive was the law down to 1814, and it was not until 1870 that the law was altered which prescribed that, after being hanged they should be drawn and quartered. No fewer than 236 offences were punished with death. Lord Eldon passionately resisted every effort made to humanise our system of punishments. In the opinion of the Conservative highflyers of the first quarter of the Century, Society was endangered if the hangman was not kept busy. It was "the truest kindness, the greatest humanity, to inflict punishment so stern as to deter men from committing crime." Exactly the same arguments are used to-day to justify a similar policy of atrocity in South Africa. But thanks to the energetic and unwearied exertions of Sir Samuel Romilly and others, the Penal Code was reformed so that the only crimes for which the death-penalty could be inflicted were high treason, murder, piracy with violence, and setting fire to the Queen's ships, dockyard, arsenals, or warlike stores. The result has been that crime has decreased more than *pari passu* with the severity of the law. At the beginning of the Queen's reign the number of hangings was about eighty per annum. To-day, with double the population, we only hang twelve per annum.

Capital punishment is still retained, but the popular spectacle of a public execution has ceased since 1868 to scandalize the world. In some other countries capital punishment itself has been dispensed with.

At the beginning of the Century, the assumption was that if any man or woman broke the law, it indicated a depravity of disposition which justified the utmost severity of punishment, and in the method of inflicting punishment vengeance was more thought of than reformation. At the end of the Century what with philanthropy and criminological science we have almost arrived at the opposite extreme. The criminal is now regarded as the product of an evil environment, the resultant of hereditary predispositions, for which he is not responsible, and his punishment is reformatory rather than punitive. Howard's work as a prison reformer belongs to the end of the Eighteenth Century, but when the nineteenth opened our gaols were sinks of iniquity. Elizabeth Fry's description of Newgate where she found the female prisoners crowded together like slaves in a ship's hold reads like a description of a nightmare. It is at least an illustration of one step in real progress that has been made, that no such dens of corruption are at present possible in any civilised land. Prison discipline is severe; solitary confinement drives men mad, but prisoners are everywhere lodged in sanitary conditions, fed regularly, and forbidden to spend their days and nights together like pigs in a sty. The prison at the beginning of the Century was a human cesspool in which unfortunates were immersed long enough to be infected with the malaria of criminality, and then turned loose to infect the community. After a time, when the malarious microbe had rendered them incurable, the victim was transferred to Australia, or hanged on the gallows. If we contrast this with Elmira penitentiary we may form some estimate of the progress of the Century. All our gaols are not yet Elmiras, but the worst of these line up to a moral and sanitary standard immeasurably higher than that of the best of the gaols of 1801.

The Nineteenth Century has witnessed a salutary change in the treatment of the poor. The reform of the English Poor Law, 1834–35,



SIR WALTER SCOTT. 1771–1832.

although fiercely assailed at the time has been justified by results. The workhouse system is being slowly transformed under the beneficent influence of humanitarian sentiment. Children are now shielded as much as possible from the workhouse taint. A steady pressure is kept up in favour of such a system of reform as would render it possible to discriminate between the treatment of the deserving and the undeserving poor. In Denmark, and in Germany, and in New Zealand, pensions are now granted to the worn out veterans of industry. Other countries are preparing to follow suit. Better provision is made for the sick in public hospitals. Collectively more is being done; individually less. The segregation of the Haves and Have-nots into separate camps labelled the Suburbs and the Slums militates against the free and helpful intermingling of the classes which keeps Society sweet. The institution of Settlements has gone on apace in our great cities since the opening of Toynbee Hall in Whitechapel. There are said to be twenty or thirty in London. If there were two hundred or three hundred it would not restore to the denizens of our crowded capital the humanizing and civilizing influences which are enjoyed by those who live in the ideal community where rich and poor meet freely on common ground, and enjoy together the ministrations of religion and the means of grace in the shape of the treasures of art, and of music, and the opportunities of recreation which are the common possession of all classes.

Gambling continues to be the most popular of all forms of amusement in the nineteenth century. When it opened, Government lotteries were recognised as one of the legitimate resources of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Lotteries still continue to be popular with some foreign governments and religious institutions, but the conscience of the community was sufficiently roused to secure their suppression by Act of Parliament in Great Britain in 1826. Ten years later a fine of £50 was imposed upon every newspaper which published the advertisement of a lottery, a proceeding which the Twentieth Century may invoke if it wakes up to the necessity for proceeding against the plague of betting which eats into all classes to-day. The gaming-table was a recognised institution for the first three-quarters of the century. But after the Franco-German War, they were rooted out, and the famous gaming-hell at Monte Carlo alone survives. But there is more rather than less gambling to-day. The modern gamester does not patronise the baize-covered table, or stake his fortunes on roulette. He puts on his "bit" on speculative stocks in the Bourse, or if he is in humbler life, he betakes himself to the universal halfpenny gaming-hell which is run by the newspapers. In most cases, the modern gambler has never seen a racehorse in his life. All that he knows is the fluctuation of the odds and the results. It would suit him just as well if the horses never existed, so long as the results and the odds appeared in the papers. A Chicago genius, whose career the law cut short, recognising this, introduced a system of "betting on the tape," in which he anticipated the needs of his customers by inventing prices all out of his own head, which, of course could be made to fluctuate with sufficient rapidity to keep excitement at fever-heat. Without the constant newspaper advertisement, the prevalent form of gambling would be impossible; but all attempts to strike at the root of the evil have hitherto been thwarted. As a result, it is the universal opinion that gambling is steadily on the increase. We are told "women now gambled regularly, and factory girls always had a penny or twopence on a horse. Boys in the streets clubbed together for the same purpose." And as it is with the young, it is with the old. A "final" or a "result" will sell more English papers than a ministerial crisis or a battle. Betting is the great preoccupation of millions.

At the beginning of the Century the masses had other amusements which they found quite as absorbing as the study of the odds. These included, among others, in assize towns the quarterly hanging of those who had been condemned to death. Of these there was no lack, the number of executions seldom falling below an average of half a dozen per month. After the exquisite enjoyment of seeing men and women put to death, they revelled in the spectacle of prize-fights, bull-fights, and cock-fights. The prize-fight, for nearly half a century, was regarded as a palladium of British liberty. Cock-fighting was only made illegal in 1849, while any proposal to interfere with bull-fighting appeared to all good Conservatives at the beginning of the Century as almost equivalent to sacrilege. When an attempt was made to forbid it by Act of Parliament, Mr. Wyndham protested against any interference with an excellent amusement which had existed for more than a thousand years. Mr. Canning, of all men in the world, voted against the Bill of Suppression, because, in his opinion, the "amusement was most excellent, and inspired courage and produced a nobleness of sentiment and elevation of mind!" It is curious to find the same arguments reproduced constantly to-day in defence of war. Bull-baiting, and with it badger-baiting and all similar sports, was put down in 1835. During the middle century, sport of all kind was not much in evidence. But in the last quarter sport became the absorbing interest of the multitude.

Cricket in summer and football in winter have more votaries than any political party. For the most part it is unfortunately only an outside interest. The tendency of both games is to become professionalised, but notwithstanding this, sport in the Nineteenth Century, like the Isthmian games in ancient Hellas, plays an important part in promoting the sentiment of race unity, and of friendly rivalry in arenas far removed from party or political strife. Horse-racing has been popularised in France, but elsewhere that sport of kings has never attained the vogue it possesses in England and in Australia. In the United States trotting-matches on race tracks, baseball and football are the popular games. Hunting, shooting, and fishing are of necessity impossible to city dwellers, but they retain their popularity in rural districts everywhere. Drinking can hardly be regarded as a sport. But it is the recreation—perhaps the only recreation—of millions.

The Nineteenth Century has witnessed, among other things, the fresh organised effort to combat the evils of intemperance. The century was not six years old before the first Temperance Society was founded at a place called Moreau, in the United States. It was twenty years later before the American Temperance Society was established at Boston, and three years later, in 1829, the Temperance Societies were founded in Ireland, Scotland, and England. Teetotalism made its appearance in its modern form at Preston in 1833, where the first pledged teetotallers were regarded with pity and contempt by their neighbours. It was not, however, till 1839, that the Temperance movement succeeded in making any deep impression upon the public mind. In that year Father Mathew began his marvellous apostolate of temperance in Ireland, and succeeded in the next three years in investing the cause of temperance with something of the fascination of his own eloquence. He made thousands of converts, but, alas, they left no successors. His monument stands in Cork, but the Irish people consume to-day more porter and whisky than when he began his philanthropic labours. In 1851 the prohibition movement may be said to have begun by the enactment of the Maine Liquor Law. From that day to this Maine has been the Mecca of the teetotaller, "the Kaaba of his prayer." The remaining half of the century has been spent in unavailing efforts to induce other legislatures to live up to the Maine standard. In the United States prohibition gained a more or less precarious foothold in Iowa, the Dakotas, and elsewhere, while in New England it held Vermont. But in Great Britain it failed utterly. The United Kingdom Alliance, formed in 1853, for the legislative suppression of the traffic in intoxicating drinks found itself no nearer its goal than it was when it was founded. The annual consumption of intoxicants in Great Britain and Ireland last year represented an expenditure of £162,000,000. There is, indeed, some reason to fear that politically, the drink traffic is master of the situation. The political power of drink, said a staunch teetotal M.P. last month, is tremendous; its electoral machinery is everywhere, and since limited liability has distributed its tentacles over a wider area, it has become in many respects a more invidious danger to the community, and a greater peril to the State than ever. The experiment of dealing with the drink problem by entrusting its distribution to the municipality, or to a company whose profits are sequestrated for purposes of public usefulness has been tried with considerable success at Gothenburg and at Bergen. The Russian government, under M. Witte, has introduced a similar principle into half the governments of European Russia. It is the one hint which the Nineteenth Century has given us as to a possible clue to the solution of a problem before which both parties stand paralysed.

It is interesting to contrast Dr. Russel Wallace's optimist estimate, previously quoted, of the pre-eminence of the Nineteenth Century with the very different appreciation of its relative importance which is to be found in a speech by Mr. Gladstone delivered in 1872. Mr. Gladstone was not usually a praiser of times past, but he was moved on this occasion, possibly by a kind of reaction against excessive laudation of the Nineteenth Century, to enter a caveat in the following remarkable words. He was addressing the students of Liverpool College, on the 21st December, 1872, when, after expressing his distrust of the free thought of the present day, he urged his hearers not to fall in too readily with the prevalent notion that this age is vastly superior to all that have gone before it. He admitted the material triumphs which it had seen accomplished, as well as the mental activity which characterised it, but it was by no means an age abounding in minds of the first order, in great immortal teachers:—

"It has tapped, as it were, and made disposable for man, vast natural forces; but the mental power employed is not to be measured by the size of the results. To perfect that marvel of travel, the locomotive, has perhaps not required the expenditure of more mental strength and application than to perfect that marvel of music, the violin. In the material sphere the achievements of the age are splendid and unmixed. In the social sphere they are great and noble, but seem ever to be confronted by a succession of new problems which almost defy solution. In the sphere of pure intellect, I doubt whether posterity will rate us as highly as we rate ourselves. But what I most wish to observe is this, that it is an insufferable

THOMAS CARLYLE. 1795–1881.

RALPH WALDO EMERSON.
AMERICAN AUTHOR. 1803–1882.

JOHANN C. F. VON SCHILLER.
GERMAN POET AND HISTORIAN. 1759–1805.

JOHN RUSKIN. 1819–1900.

HENRIK IBSEN.
NORSE DRAMATIST. BORN 1828.

HYPPOLITE TAINE.
FRENCH WRITER. 1828–1893.

JOHN MORLEY.
STATESMAN AND AUTHOR. BORN 1838.

MEN OF LETTERS.

arrogance in the men of any age to assume what I may call airs of unmeasured superiority over former ages. God, who cares for us, cared for them also. In the goods of this world we may advance by strides; but it is by steps only, and not strides, and by slow and not always steady steps, that all desirable improvement of man in the higher ranges of his being is effected."

The drift of population to the towns has been most marked in England, but it exists in other countries, especially in Australia. The population of the rural districts remains much as it was at the beginning of the century, whereas the population of the towns has increased enormously. According to the calculation of an ingenious statistician, if the urban population increases at the same rate in the new century, the year 2001 will find us with a rural population of under 10,000,000, and an urban population of over 100,000,000. Pleasant prospect, truly! From such an unholy consummation we shall probably be delivered by the development of centrifugal agencies. In the Nineteenth Century the centripetal forces have tended to agglomerations of population. Nearly all the improvements of modern social life have been largely confined to the cities, and industrial and economic causes have also tended to swell the drift to the towns. Life in towns is neither so healthy nor so tranquil as life in the country, and this increase of city life as a factor in human happiness or unhappiness must be set off against the improvement in the material conditions of life, especially of associated or civic life, which has been so remarkable a feature of the Nineteenth Century. In one of the books published at the Queen's last Jubilee, a writer put into the mouth of an imaginary Rip van Winkle his astonishment at the change which had come over the condition of the people in the course of the Queen's reign.

"To-day," he said, "the poor man gets for his penny what the rich man could not buy for a shilling sixty years ago. Another strange thing is, that while each penny goes twice as far, he has twice as many pennies. And he has all London—and such a London, a city of glory and of splendour to what it used to be—as his own backyard, with its museums, its libraries, its art galleries as free as air. There are baths and wash-houses in every district, and schools at almost every door. He is free of the parks as if they were his own demesne. He has his clubs, his trade unions, his benefit societies. To-day the vote is the sceptre of the people, and he votes for everything. He has far more constant work and much higher wages, with cheap bread, cheap sugar, and cheap tea. A far better education than the middle class could buy for love or money is provided free by the State. He has shortened hours of labour, bank holidays, and half day on Saturday. The hospitals provide him with free medicine, the workhouses with free shelter in distress. The streets are swept and cleaned, clean water is laid to every house, and the magnificent drainage system carries off all the sewage. All that is new since I fell asleep. He has a better house to live in, a cleaner street to walk in, and a pleasanter park to play in. A halfpenny postcard will carry his message from Land's End to John o' Groats, a halfpenny paper will bring the news of the world to the door, and a workman's ticket will carry him to and from his work at less than a halfpenny a mile. For a penny he can buy the best books in the language, and without even a penny the reading-room and free library afford him access to all the books and papers of the day. Why, the whole world has become a kind of free university and museum for the common people. For sixpence the lightning will carry his message anywhere in the United Kingdom in the twinkling of an eye, and for another sixpence the sun will take his portrait in a flash of light. None of these things were possible sixty years ago."

In Great Britain nearly every institution has been remodelled. In the United States exactly the reverse is the case. The American Republic has remained both in its external form and in its internal economy on the same lines on which the original evidence was built by the founders of the Republic. In Great Britain, with the exception of the House of Lords and the Corporation of the City of London, there is hardly any institution which has not been entirely remodelled in the course of the hundred years. The House of Commons was reformed in 1832, again reformed in 1867, and a third time in 1884. The municipal organisation of the country dates from the passing of the Municipal Corporations Act in 1835. Our Poor Law system was also remodelled in the thirties. The whole of our system of popular Education was built up on foundations laid by Mr. W. E. Forster in the Education Act of 1870. The system of County Government is still more recent. The old system of government by the Justices of the Peace in Quarter Sessions assembled lasted down to the eighties, when they were superseded by the County Councils, and afterwards the system of County Government was completed by the establishment of Parish Councils in the nineties. Our Judicial system has also undergone repeated changes, of which by far the most important, from the point of view of the masses of the people, was the establishment of County Courts. It is difficult to remember that county courts were a creation of the latter half of the present reign.

Our prisons, also, have been repeatedly the subject of the attention of the Legislature; but, often as they have been reformed, they are now awaiting a still further reformation, in accordance with the recommendations of the Commission which reported upon the whole subject a few years since. Of the new institutions, the London County Council is that which has done most to quicken the popular imagination as to the possibilities of Democratic Government. It enjoys the unique distinction of being the only popularly elected body in the country which excites confidence and generates enthusiasm. It is not merely what the Council has done, but the fact that it has dared to aspire after a lofty ideal, which has given it the hold which it possesses upon the public mind, both for banning and for blessing, for the maledictions of the adversary are usually but a kind of inverted echo of the benedictions of your friends.

The Drift towards Slavery which Mr. Spencer sees in the drift towards Socialism is most marked in those countries which have already drifted towards that other kind of slavery known as Militarism. The Co-operative movement of the new Century has not realised the expectations of those who were pioneers of the movement, but it probably marks the most successful approach to voluntary socialism of our times. "We are all Socialists now," said Sir W. Harcourt once, in his cheery way. But municipal Socialists—Socialists of the Chair, the opportunists of Socialism, the advocates of old age pensions, and those who invoke the intervention of State whenever they think such intervention would be beneficial to the great majority of the people—all these, although they may fall under the ban of the thoroughgoing individualist, would be equally banned by the thoroughgoing Socialists, who have steadily gained ground in Germany election after election, and who are already a great and increasing power in France, In Russia they say nearly all the students are Socialists of Marxian or anti-Marxian stripes. In England the Social Democrats and the Independent Labour Party gain ground because of the paralysis of the Radicals, who are divided by the war. In Belgium the Socialists are hand-in-glove with the Clericals. In Italy at the last election they showed increasing strength. But in no country have they yet had an opportunity of showing that they could reorganise Society so as to produce greater happiness for the greatest number. They seem so have come nearest to it in New Zealand; but even there, where the circumstances are exceptionally favourable, there is considerable conflict of opinion as to whether the result has realised expectations. Nevertheless it may be said that the net result of a Century's progress is that nearly all the men who would have been Radicals in 1801 are Socialists in 1900. The popular aspirations have taken a Socialist direction, and the Twentieth Century will probably see the experiment of a Socialist community on Marxian principles tried in real earnest somewhere. It is to be hoped for the sake of everybody, and especially of the Socialists, that the experiment will be made at first on a small scale. An attempt to reconstruct Society on an imperial scale would inevitably fail, and the crash of its failure would set back all progress in that direction for fifty years.

Socialism has come to be as respectable as Radicalism was at the beginning of the century. Sixty years ago, Socialism was almost as much a byword as Anarchism is to-day. Of this we have a curious illustration in this entry in the "Annals of Our Time":—

> Jan. 24, 1840. The Bishop of Exeter presents a petition to the House of Lords, signed by 4000 inhabitants of Birmingham, alleging the danger to morals from the spread of the system denominated Socialism, and praying their Lordships to take steps to check the evil. The petition arose partly on of the presentation of Robert Owen to the Queen, in which Lord Melbourne now admitted that he had acted indiscreetly.

We have changed all that long since.

One of the most notable international parliaments of the century was the Congress summoned by the German Emperor in 1890 to consider the condition of the working-man. The Congress, which met in the hall of Prince Bismarck's palace, held its last sitting on March 15th. Its principal resolutions, signed on this occasion by the representatives of the various nations, were briefly as follows:—

> "That children ought not to work in mines under the age of fourteen (or in Southern countries twelve); that underground work should be forbidden to females; that the duration of shifts in mines should be in some manner limited. Suggestions were made as to the possibility of subjecting work in mines to international regulations in order to ensure regularity in the output of coal. One day of rest in the week (if possible Sunday) was recommended for all industrial and protected workers, with certain necessary exceptions, which could be regulated by arrangement. The committee on children's labour decided that children under the age of twelve (or in Southern countries ten) ought not to engage in industrial occupations, and that young people under sixteen should neither work at night nor on Sundays. Various restrictions upon such labour, and also upon female labour, were laid down; and the report closed with suggestions as to the carrying out of the recommendations of the Conference which followed closely upon the lines of the Factory Acts passed by the British Parliament."

These recommendations were approved by the official representatives of the various Governments of Europe. It may be interesting to compare them with the programme of the

Socialists, who are not trammelled by the responsibility of the Executive Government.*

* July 16th, 1889.—At an International Workers' Congress in Paris, the following programme was accepted :—

"(1.) A maximum day's work of eight hours.

"(2.) One day of rest per week, and no labour on holidays.

"(3.) Abolition of nightwork so far as possible for men, and entirely for women and children.

"(4.) Suppression of the work of children before the age of sixteen years, and protection of children until the age of eighteen years.

"(5.) Complete education—general, technical, and professional.

"(6.) Overtime not to exceed four hours in twenty-four hours, and should be paid double.

"(7.) The responsibility civil and criminal, of employers in cases of accident.

"(8.) Nomination by the workmen of a sufficient number of capable inspectors, paid by the State or by the municipality, with full powers to enter at any time into factories, workshops, or places of business, and to visit apprentices in their own residences.

"(9.) Establishment of workshops by the workmen with subventions from the municipality or the State.

"(10.) The labour of workhouses and of prisons to be submitted to the same conditions as free labour, and to be confined as much as possible to great public works.

"(11.) No foreign workmen should accept employment, and no employer should employ foreign workmen, below the rate fixed by the union of their trade.

"(12.) A minimum rate of pay to be fixed in each country having relation to the cost of that which is reasonably indispensable to existence.

"(13.) The abrogation of all the laws which prevent the international organisation of labour.

"(14.) Equality of payment for equal labour to men and to women."

October 14th, 1891.—A German Socialist Congress was opened at Erfurt. . . . The principal features of its programme were :—

"(1.) Universal suffrage, without distinction of sex, for all subjects of the Empire over twenty years of age; direct election by the people by secret ballot; the principle of 'one man one vote'; and biennial Parliaments.

"(2.) The direct participation of the people in legislation with the right to initiate or reject laws, and the annual revision of taxation.

"(3.) A wide extension of the principle of local government, and the election of all public officials by the people, to whom such officials are to be held responsible.

"(4.) The training of the people in arms, so as to form a national defence to take the place of a standing army.

"(5.) The decision of peace or war to rest with the elected representatives of the people; international disputes to be decided by arbitration.

"(6.) The repeal of all laws prohibiting or restricting free expression of opinion, or the right of association or of public meeting.

"(7.) Religion to be a matter of private opinion, and all payment of public funds for confessional or religious objects to cease; ecclesiastical or religious committees to be considered private associations which manage their own affairs.

"(8.) The secularisation of the national schools, attendance at which is to be compulsory for every one; free education, free books, and free dinners for children attending the public schools, as well as for those pupils of either sex who, by their general capacity, are considered fit to pursue their studies at the higher educational establishments.

"(9.) Free administration of justice and free legal advice. Judges to be elected by the people.

"(10.) The abolition of capital punishment, the establishment of criminal courts of appeal, and the payment of compensation to persons unjustly accused, arrested, or condemned.

"(11.) Free medical assistance, including attendance at childbirth, free medicine, and free disposal of the dead.

"(12.) A graduated income and property tax to defray the public expenditure, so far as it is to be met by taxation; the obligation of self-assessment; the succession duty to be fixed on a sliding scale, according to the amount of the inheritance and the degree of relationship between the legatee and the testator.

"(13.) The abolition of indirect taxation and duties, and of such politico-economic measures as subordinate the general weal to the interests of a privileged minority.

"(14.) An efficient national and international legislation for the protection of the working-classes; the taking over, by the State, of all workmen's insurance agencies, the workmen to be given an adequate share in their administration.

"(15.) An unbroken period of rest of at least 36 hours in each week for every working-man."

One of the greatest of all problems that is left us by the Nineteenth Century is the question whether the multiplication of the population of the world is likely to go on in years to come at the rate at which it has been proceeding in the last hundred years. It was at the beginning of the century that the famous Malthus formulated his law of the natural checks upon over-population, and thereby created a kind of diabolical Malthusian trinity of War, Famine and Pestilence, which kept down the redundant population, and prevented the multiplication of mouths beyond the means provided by Nature for filling them. The whole of the century has been one long struggle to disestablish this trinity, with the result that the population has gone up by leaps and bounds,—excepting in Ireland and the Soudan. In India the increase of population under British rule has been so great that not even the terrible famines which swept away the population by the million have appreciably checked its growth. An eminent authority calculated that the population of the world at the close of the century was about 1264 millions; and that in another 150 years, if the present rate of increase is kept up, the number of mortals upon this planet would be about twice that number, after which time, according to some authorities, this planet will be labelled "*complet*," like a French omnibus, for the world will then be full up. Such calculations are too high for us, and towards the close of the century there are signs that there is a tendency in more countries than one towards a diminution of the rapidity of the multiplication of the species. This is most marked in France, where the population statistics for 1891 show a lower average of births than

EDWARD B. PUSEY.
High Church. 1800-1882.

FREDERICK D. MAURICE.
'Broad' Church. 1805-1872.

DR. JAMES MARTINEAU.
Unitarian. 1805-1900.

ALBRECHT RITSCHL.
German Religious Teacher. 1822-1893.

GENERAL BOOTH.
Founder of the Salvation Army.
Born 1829.

CHARLES H. SPURGEON.
Baptist. 1834-1892.

RELIGIOUS TEACHERS.

deaths for the last ten years, a phenomenon which is the more remarkable inasmuch as the average of marriages was higher. The population of France is practically stationary, while that of Germany has gone forward with such leaps and bounds that the cradles of Germany have added more subjects to the empire since 1871 than the population of Alsace and Lorraine, which were added to Germany by the sword of the conqueror. The same tendency to slow up, although to a less extent, is observable in England, and strange to say, in the Australasian colonies, where certainly considerations of Malthusian over-population can hardly be said to have any existence. It is, however, not so much over-population of the continents of the world which really checks the growth of population as the shrinking from the over-population of the family.

In Great Britain the religious movements of the century present certain well-defined features. The early years of the century were famous as witnessing a great outburst of missionary activity. Modern missions may, indeed, be said to have dated from the beginning of the Nineteenth Century. They were followed or accompanied by a great Evangelical revival in the Church of England, a kind of aftermath of the Methodist revival of the previous century. Wesley had been summarily ejected from the fold of the Establishment, and in beneficent revenge his teachings renewed the spiritual life of the Anglican Church. This was followed in the forties by the Oxford movement, which is associated with the name of Pusey. As the High Church revival proceeded, Newman and many of his followers quitted the Anglican Church, and made submission to Rome. The others, under Pusey and Keble, remained within the Establishment, in due course of time to generate the Ritualists, whose Romanising tendencies still excite the alarm of Mr. Kensit and his followers. Hardly had the High Church movement fully registered itself among the forces of modern England, than the Broad Church party entered the field. As the Ritualists had their "Tracts," so the Broad Churchmen had their "Essays and Reviews," and a little later Bishop Colenso's examination of the Pentateuch. Between the High Church revival and the Broad Church reaction, the Evangelicals of the Church of England gradually disappeared, shrinking until at present they have almost ceased to exist as a visible practical force in the land. Evangelicalism has found foothold in the Free Churches, which have tardily opened their eyes to the fact that difference of birthplace, and the extremely various tendency of Nonconformist thought is no bar to fraternal union. The Free Church Federation at present is little more than a name; it is simply as an aspiration to be realised that it exists. Meanwhile, in many directions, there are signs that the Churches are bent on accentuating those differences which exist, rather than dwelling upon the union of faith and the spirit of charity. The latest illustration of this has been afforded by the non-established Presbyterian bodies north of the Tweed. One of the most thrilling religious episodes of the century was the revolt of the four hundred Presbyterian ministers in the year 1843. Dr. Chalmers and his followers this year abandoned the Established Kirk, and founded the Free Church of Scotland. Presbyterianism, therefore, may be said to have closed its ranks. There is only one Presbyterian Church outside the Established Kirk, and the existence of this division is solely due to the existence of the Establishment. Wesleyan Methodism is also beginning to absorb the various Methodist sects which split off from the parent body.

Another feature which characterises the religious history of the century, has been the growth of Revivalism. This is largely of American origin. Most of the famous Revivalists who have influenced Britain were of American birth, and the one man who has systematised Revivalism was the spiritual child of an American Revivalist. The Salvation Army is, however, much more than an attempt to base a religious organisation upon Revivalism. It has developed into a great organisation for social service, and is the only English sect which has succeeded in some measure in extending its branches among every English-speaking nation. It is also remarkable as affording the most conspicuous illustration of one great tendency of the times, namely, the utilisation of the services of women in the Christian ministry. The same tendency is apparent in other directions, even among the most conventional and conservative of churches, but no one, excepting General Booth and his wife, has ever formulated with such uncompromising vigour the doctrine of the equality of the sexes in all departments of the service of the sanctuary.

The gradual widening of the popular conception of religion has not, perhaps, been accompanied by a corresponding increase in depth. The religious sentiment at the end of the Century is as shallow as it is wide. Our grandfathers were narrow, but they took a more serious view of personal responsibility, of life and of death, and of what came after death—the judgment. Since—in the profane phrase of the time—Lord Westbury "dismissed Hell with costs" in the famous judgment which secured to Anglican clergymen liberty to deny eternal punishment, there has been a perceptible weakening in the popular belief in the

existence of any Day of Judgment. A Broad Church minister in Scotland, who was arraigned for his heretical views on the question of future punishment, defended himself with much fervour from the charge brought against him of endeavouring to weaken the dread of future retribution by his onslaught on the popular ideas of an eternal literal hell-fire. "What I want," he said, with much earnestness, "is to rehabilitate Hell. The thing is a terrible truth, but its conventional statement has become simply unthinkable. Man must have a working hell if he is to be kept straight, and the orthodox hell has got out of gear. It is an anachronism. To readjust it to modern life and thought is necessary, and the reformer is not the iconoclast, he is the saviour of the institution."

The sociologist can point out that the violation of moral law entails the damnation and the destruction of society. But what he has yet failed to do, what perhaps he will never be able to do, unless he extends his outlook beyond the horizon of the cradle and of the grave, is to make the individual realise that his wrong-doing entails personal penalties. The eastern doctrines of Karma and of Reincarnation may supply the missing link; and psychic research, by demonstrating the persistence of personality after death, may restore to the race the restraint which has been weakened by modern thought. But otherwise it is difficult to say from what quarter the Twentieth Century will bring us the indispensable reinforcement of restraint.

The rationalising tendency, which has undermined so many of the venerable superstitions which were regarded by our forefathers as inseparable from the belief in Divine Revelation, reached England from the Continent. Forty years ago, all Broad Churchmen were denounced as Germanising neologians, and accused of laying profane hands upon the Sacred Ark of the Covenant. Young people of the present day find it impossible to imagine the commotion that was raised in orthodox England by the audacity of the arithmetical Bishop Colenso, who, having found that two and two did not always make four in the writings of the author of the Pentateuch, ventured to suggest that the Almighty ought not to be held personally responsible for the mistake in the figure lessons of the ancient writer. Even twenty years ago as good and sensible a woman as Mrs. Catherine Booth did not hesitate to declare, "If I did not believe that God made the world, and all that is therein, in six days of twenty-four hours each, I should have no confidence in the Bible any more." So essential become the husks and mildewed wrappages in which our predecessors have handed down to us the sacred deposit of faith.

The work of demolishing theories that advancing culture had rendered unthinkable was one in which many engaged, confidently believing that they were about to overthrow the whole edifice of Christian faith. That illusion has perished. Coarse and violent onslaughts, such as Mr. Bradlaugh was wont to make on the popular religious beliefs, are no longer to be heard on British platforms. In France and Germany it is still the fashion among Socialists and Liberals to be scornfully contemptuous of the creed which gives its name to Christendom. But although freethinkers no longer attack the Christian faith, but adopt what they believe to be the more deadly method of explaining it, the net result of a century's sap and mine and frontal attack has left Religion very much as the Reformation left Glasgow Cathedral when, as Andrew Fairservice declared, "the auld kirk stood as crouse as a cat when all the fleas have been kaimed aff her." The accidental, the temporary, the envelope, as it were, of the Christian creed has been distinguished from the central element, the essential gospel proclaimed to mankind by Jesus of Nazareth.

When the outer cerements are peeled off a mummy, the corpse within sometimes crumbles into dust. But when the swaddling clothes are removed from the limbs of the living, we have quite another consummation. Where there is doubt whether the thing within the wrappage is a mummy or a living man, there is naturally much trepidation at the result of the unbinding process. That process, in the case of the Christian Creed, has gone far enough to justify the faith of those who maintained that it was no mummy but an immortal thing. The endeavour to take off the wrappings of legend, myth, and metaphysic, and to discover the vital and essential element in religion led men back to the discovery of the real and original Jesus of Nazareth and of His own Gospel. Of this return to Christ, which has grown with the century, the most decisive and fruitful leader in theology has been Albrecht Ritschl. But all the Century the debate has gone on between those who feared and doubted and those who had faith and were of a good courage. And, as usually happens, it was the fearful and unbelieving who arrogated to themselves the exclusive right to be regarded as defenders of the faith. Tennyson's lines, quoted so often as to be hackneyed, expressed the dawning conviction of the middle century that this claim on their part was unfounded—

> "There dwells more faith in honest doubt
> Believe me, than in half the creeds."

Whittier's lines upon the Reformer have the true ring of the dauntless Quaker believer,

who, with intrepid brow, watched the manifestation of the Divine Spirit in the unfolding of things.

All grim and soiled and brown with tan,
I saw a Strong One, in his wrath,
Smiting the godless shrines of man
Along his path.

The Church, beneath her trembling dome,
Essayed in vain her ghostly charm;
Wealth shook within his gilded home
With strange alarm.

'Twas but the ruin of the bad,—
The wasting of the wrong and ill;
Whate'er of good the old time had
Was living still.

But life shall on and upward go;
Th' eternal step of Progress beats
To that great anthem, calm and slow,
Which God repeats.

Take heart!—the Waster builds again,—
A charmed life old Goodness hath;
The tares may perish,—but the grain
Is not for death.

Among those who contributed largely to widen the orthodox view of life must be mentioned, in this country, the founders of the Broad Church Party. Maurice was its domestic chaplain, Robertson of Brighton its preacher, Stanley its courtier, Kingsley its fighting man-at-arms, Colenso its bishop-militant, while Arnold of Rugby was its Educator. In America, Henry Ward Beecher, politician, abolitionist, and orator and wit, was perhaps one of the most potent influences of his time in broadening Evangelicalism, and inducing the timorous orthodox to realise that God would still be in His heaven even if some of the theological props with which the Church had underpinned the universe had become dry-rotted with age or mildewed with damp. Channing, Theodore Parker,—whose creed Lowell so inimitably condensed into a couplet:—

"He's seized the idea, by his martyrdom fired,
That all men, not orthodox, may be inspired,"—

Emerson, and Lowell all did a great deal of pioneer work in this direction. Lowell, much more than Matthew Arnold, represents the spirit of the Christian rationalism of our times. For there is faith in Lowell's verse. "God is not dumb that He should speak no more," sang the American. "Still at the prophet's feet the nations sit." And Whittier, also, on his clear Quaker flute, discoursed of a living faith:—

"O brother man! fold to thy heart thy brother,
Where pity dwells, the peace of God is there;
To worship rightly is to love each other,
Each smile a hymn, each kindly deed a prayer."

Such heresies as these naturally excited the gravest alarm in the minds of the ecclesiastical custodians of the sanctuary. But the world still moved. On June 21st, 1864, the Convocation appointed Committees of the Upper and Lower House to examine and report upon the volume entitled "Essays and Reviews," "and the said Committees having severally reported thereon, doth hereby synodically condemn the said volume as containing teachings contrary to the doctrines received by the United Church of England and Ireland, in common with the whole Catholic Church of Christ."

To-day the writer of one of the "Essays and Reviews" thus synodically condemned, is Archbishop of Canterbury.

The Law Courts, which in England decide what doctrines may or may not be taught in the pulpits of the Church of England, decided in 1850, in the Gorham case, that Anglican clergymen may lawfully deny the doctrine of Baptismal Regeneration; and then, twenty-two years later, in the case of Bennett of Frome, it was laid down that the clergy were equally free to affirm that the mode of the presence of our Lord in the Sacrament was objective, real, actual, and spiritual. These questions were at least of some importance.

Far otherwise was the case with most of the ecclesiastical litigation of the last half century. When the clergy were wrangling about the number of candles which might be burnt in church in daylight, or the precise cut of copes or other millinery, men of science were gravely questioning the very foundations upon which their creed rested. The belief, for instance, in the efficacy of prayer, which Professor Tyndall proposed to subject to a somewhat crude scientific test, has been rudely questioned. The miracle of the maintenance of Müller's orphanages, by which two thousand orphans are fed day by day without other resource than that of believing prayers, is one of the facts of the Century which an earlier age would have enshrined among its most sacred records. The statesman occasionally lent a helping hand to those who assailed the conventional belief of the Churches. Scotland has not forgotten even to this day the famous sermon which Lord Palmerston preached to the Edinburgh Presbytery from the text "Faith without works is dead." It came about in this wise.

In October, 1853, the Edinburgh Presbytery petitioned Lord Palmerston to appoint a National Day of Fasting and Prayer for the removal of the cholera, which was then raging in the country. He refused, and on October 19th justified his refusal in a letter which created a great hubbub. In this he said:—

"The Maker of the Universe established certain laws of Nature for the planet in which we live, and the weal or woe of mankind depends upon the observance of these laws." Lord Palmerston would therefore suggest that the "best course which the people of this country can pursue to deserve that the further progress of the cholera

PIUS VII., Pope.
1742–1823.

PIUS IX., Pope.
1792–1878.

LEO XIII., Pope.
Born 1810.

CARDINAL MANNING.
1807–1892.

RULERS OF THE ROMAN CHURCH.

should be stayed, will be in planning and executing measures by which those portions of their towns and cities which are inhabited by the poorer classes may be freed from those causes and sources of contagion which, as long as they remain will infallibly breed pestilence, and be fruitful in deaths in spite of all the prayers and fastings of an united but inactive nation. When man has done his utmost for his own safety, then is the time to invoke the blessing of heaven to give effect to his exertions."

The successors of St. Peter looked with scant sympathy upon the prevailing tendency of the time. The two great utterances of the Roman Church during the century equally express the alarm and distrust excited in the Vatican by the latitudinarian rationalism of the day. One was the Syllabus of Pope Pius, the other, the solemn affirmation by the Œcumenical Council of the truth of the doctrine of Papal Infallibility.

On December 8th, 1864, Pio Nono issued an encyclical letter, with an appendix specifying the principal modern errors condemned by the Pope. Among others were the following:—

That the Pope can and ought to become reconciled to progress, liberalism, and modern civilisation. That it is not fitting that in the present day the Catholic religion should be the exclusive religion of the State. That it is untrue that civil liberty of worship and freedom of the Press conduce to the corruption of morals and to propagate indifference. The Pope further condemned biblical, Socialist, and secret societies, and all persons who held that there was hope of the eternal salvation of those who do not belong to the true Church, or that Protestantism was only another form of true belief, and equally pleasing to God.

Six years later, an Œcumenical Council of the Roman Church sitting at Rome, solemnly proclaimed the Infallibility *ex cathedrâ* of the Roman Pontiff, within a few months of the overthrow of the Temporal Power. Infallibility no sooner entered at one gate than the Pope-King walked out of the other.

Only 53 Bishops voted against the unconditional adoption of the Constitution *de fide*, while 515 accepted it unconditionally. The five canons by which this amazing Council believed it was possible to strengthen the bulwarks of the City of God, deserve to stand on record as a monumental instance of the extraordinary methods ecclesiastics sometimes employ to interpret the love of God to man. Three centuries ago they used the stake and the rack for the torturing of the body. In the Nineteenth Century they were not less merciless to the reason and conscience of mankind.

(1.) If any one should say that the episcopal chair of the Roman Church is not the true and real infallible chair of Blessed Peter, or that it has not been divinely chosen by God as the most solid, indefectible, and incorruptible rock of the whole Christian Church, let him be anathema.

(2.) If any one should say that there exists in the world another infallible chair of the truth of the Gospel of Christ our Lord, distinct and separate from the chair of Blessed Peter, let him be anathema.

(3.) If any one should deny that the divine *magisterium* of the chair of Blessed Peter is necessary to the true way of eternal salvation for all men, whether unfaithful or faithful, whether laymen or bishops, let him be anathema.

(4.) If any one should say that each Roman Pontiff, legitimately elected, is not by divine right the successor of Blessed Peter, even in the gift of the infallibility of *magisterium*, and should deny to any one of them the prerogative of infallibility for teaching the Church the Word of God pure from all corruption and error, let him be anathema.

(5.) If any one should say that general councils are established by God in the Church as a power of feeding the divine flock in the word of faith superior to the Roman Pontiff, or equal to him, or necessary by divine institution in order that the *magisterium* of the Roman Bishop should be preserved infallible, let him be anathema.

For a precise, comprehensive Damn, which includes the most of Christian men and women in its anathema, this fivefold curse would be difficult to beat. Who can fail to sympathise with the plaintive lament of Newman when he asked, "What have we done to be treated as the faithful never were treated before? When has a definition *de fide* been a luxury of devotion and not a stern, painful necessity? Why should an aggressive, insolent faction be allowed to 'make the heart of the just sad, whom the Lord hath not made sorrowful?' Why cannot we be let alone when we have pursued peace and thought no evil. . . . If it is God's will that the Pope's infallibility is defined, then is it God's will to throw back 'the times and the moments' of that triumph which He has destined for His kingdom, and I shall feel I have but to bow my head to His adorable, inscrutable Providence." Others found it less easy to admit so tremendous a hypothesis as that the decision of the Council was an authentic interpretation of the Divine will. Among those few, Dr. Döllinger was the chief. He boldly declared that he rejected the new dogma. He said, April 18th, 1871: "As a student of history, I cannot accept it, for as such I know that the persistent endeavour to realise this theory of universal dominion has cost Europe rivers of blood, has disordered whole countries and brought them to ruin, has shattered the beautiful structure of the earlier Church, and in the Church of modern times has generated, nurtured, and maintained the worst abuses. As a citizen I must reject it, because by its pretensions to the subjection of States and monarchs, and of the whole political system to the Papal power, it leads to endless destructive conflict between Church and State, between clergy and laity."

The Century can hardly be described as *par excellence* a Religious Century. It has produced no great spiritual teacher, no Buddha, no Mohammed, not even a Luther or a Loyola. In outward things its most notable achievement

was the proclamation of the dogma of Papal Infallibility, which had as its counterpart on the other side the destruction of the temporal power of the Pope. The closing hour of the century is to witness a great watch-night service in St Peter's in Rome, in which Leo XIII. will over the tomb of the apostles "unite two centuries in a solemn consecration of homage to Jesus Christ the King of immortal ages." The mood in which these worshippers will take leave of the nineteenth and salute the twentieth century is eloquently set forth in the circular of Cardinal Vaughan on the subject of the Pilgrimage of Solemn Homage:—

"The sense of uncertainty and unrest is universal. The Vicar of Christ, despoiled of his legitimate power, is a prisoner. Races are exasperated against races. Rival nations provoke each other to strike by gibes and insults. Men are asking, Whose influence is to be paramount and to dominate mankind? Will Northern hordes again sweep down over Europe? When Asia shall have been armed, like ourselves, will the heathen races prevail against the Christian? What may not the coming century have in store wherewith to scourge those who have sinned against light? Meanwhile, envy, jealousy, hatred and desire of revenge, avarice, greed of power and of influence, have broken out amongst the nations, like a plague of vices that threatens to decimate, if not destroy, their power.

"The Governments of the world see all this plainly enough, and tremble for the result. They apply remedies; but their remedies are worthless. They call a Conference of Peace, but exclude the Pope. They forge weapons of destruction; they arm their populations in self-defence. They establish compulsory education, without religion. They declare all religions to be equally good—or equally useless. They preach a gospel of commerce, of the 'open door,' and of 'spheres of influence,' and then dispatch armies to fight. The people dig passionately into the bowels of the earth for more, and yet more, of the precious and the common metals. Yet taxation increases and wants multiply everywhere. We are deafened by the chaos of conflicting cries, and there is no common agreement. The world indeed is out of joint, and sick unto death, as the nineteenth century passes into the dawn of the twentieth."

Even the most prejudiced Protestant will admit that there is much truth in this sombre but powerful picture of the world as it is to-day. But that this burden of uncertainty and unrest would cease or be diminished even by a feather-weight if the temporal sovereignty over the States of the Church were restored to the hands of the Pope, is a proposition which rests upon no data of demonstrated or demonstratable facts. The malady lies deeper. Its remedy is not to be found in any change of political supremacy over a few square miles of Italian soil.

The subtle and profound change that has come over the modern world in this century has been largely due to the discovery—which even yet is not realised by the majority of men—that human beings, intelligent and responsible, have existed upon this planet for hundreds of thousands of years. Now, while it may not have been rational, it is at least thinkable, on the hypothesis that man first appeared on this planet 4004 years before Christ, that the patriarchal, the Jewish and the Christian religions were the only authentic revelation of the Creator to His creatures. On that assumption these three would at least span the history of Humanity. But the moment the truth of the immense antiquity of man is clearly grasped, the narrow exclusive theory becomes manifestly unthinkable. The argument in favour of the Christian revelation, as stated by Christian apologists without number, starts from the question whether a Creator would leave Himself without a witness as to His existence? Postulate a Father in Heaven, does it not follow that He must have taught His children of His existence and of His law? If, then, there must of necessity be some revelation, what is more natural, they asked, than to find it in the religion which, beginning with the earliest progenitors of our race, carries us on by regular steps until the Divine message, imperfectly syllabled at Sinai is completed at Calvary? But once the antiquity of man is admitted, the very postulate of the apologist compels us to seek for some earlier and more universal revelation of the divine Father. Christianity, even if we date its advent back to Adam, 4004 B.C., covers but a mere fraction of the responsible life of our race. Granting that man acquired sufficient moral consciousness to be regarded as responsible 100,000 years ago, the human race must have existed for 94,000 years before the first glimmering light from the Cross thrown backwards across forty centuries could have irradiated the first human eye. It does not follow in the least from that, that there is no Divine truth revealed in the Christian religion. The revelation of God in Christ may have been the culmination, the ripening of the Divine Seed, its more perfect and complete unfolding. But it can manifestly no longer stand by itself as the total and only manifestation of God to man. It is the perception of this fact, far more than the destruction of the temporal sovereignty of the Pope-King, which has changed men's ideas about religion, and therefore about life. "You seek," wrote Mazzini to the Œcumenical

Council at the Vatican, "to enclose the eternal, progressive, continuous revelation of God within the limits of a single book, a single epoch. You pretend that a beacon kindled 1800 years ago to illumine our journey across a single epoch is destined to be our sole luminary along the path of the Infinite." The discovery that this beacon light was only kindled at the eleventh hour of our race's history, and that thousands of generations of men and women had lived and died and gone down into the abyss before even the first preparations for kindling that beacon were on record in the Bible, tends naturally to give a shock to the conventional belief. The effect of that shock is intensified, rather than reduced, by the uncompromising emphasis with which the Infallible One reaffirms the dogmas which were framed when man was the centre of the universe, when the sun was lit for his candle by day, and the moon brought out to give him light by night; when human history began with the first book of Genesis, and centred round the Crucifixion of Christ.

The foundations of the old faith have been shaken, and men's hearts do not exactly fail them for fear, but they are looking round for an impregnable rock on which to take their stand. They see clearly that a good deal of stubble, and chaff, and sand will have to fly before they can get down to bed rock. Modern science has accustomed them to constantly verified and re-verified experimental demonstration of truth. The mind craves for as veritable a basis for the Faith of the Future. Is it possible that such a gift may be awaiting us in the century that is coming? The hope that we may be on the eve of the discovery of a wider synthesis which will unveil to the wistful eye of man a real Catholicism, and display the essential unity which pervades all the religions of all the world, is in itself a prophesy of what may be in store for us. "God wills, man hopes," said the poet, and the mere aspiration after the advent of such a thing may be one of the agencies helping to bring it about. The remarkable gathering, known as the Parliament of Religions, that met at Chicago seven years ago, foreshadowed the realisation of such an ideal. In the coming centuries it may be that the Parliament of Religions will loom more largely than the Œcumenical Council which decreed the Infallibility of the Pope. If the Unity of Mankind is once recognised as the necessary correlative of the Unity of God, much at present chimerical becomes attainable.

Herbert Spencer's conception of humanity as an organism without personality has enabled the Christian thinkers of the latter half of the century to present the Christian doctrine in a form which may more readily commend itself to modern students of social science. They contend that, as there must have been a point in the slow evolution of man from the brute when man first became human and acquired moral consciousness as an individual, so there was a moment in the history of the race when the new man, or rather the new humanity, emerged, and, from being an organism unconscious of personality, acquired consciousness of unity and personality. This supreme moment, they contend, was the Incarnation. When God became incarnate man, the goal towards which the race had travelled through a Via Dolorosa of numberless æons was reached, and the Divine soul of the world was made manifest in Christ. As, long before, the soulless brute became "man, a living soul," so the race which heretofore had been an organism unaware of its personal unity was born anew with the personality and the soul, which was and is the living Christ of God. In Him were gathered up all the scattered rays of Deity which had gleamed through the darkness of the long past. Their source and focus, He became the Light of the World. He was revealed, what he eternally is, the Living Soul of Humanity—that humanity which, since His appearing, has shown itself as it is to-day, partly an organ responsive to His purpose, partly, perhaps preponderantly, a body of sin and death warring in all its members against the soul which will some day bring all things to subjection unto its perfect will. The vital religious movement of the century has been the dawning consciousness of the reality of the Christ-soul of mankind, the hope for the next Century is that this consciousness may ripen more and more unto the perfect day.

But in more familiar, humble phrase we may restate the same truth, and say that, "One is your Father, and all ye are brethren," will be the first article of the Religion of the Future. From that, all the rest may be deduced. Fatherhood in man alone renders possible the realising faith in the Fatherhood of God. Thus the mysterious law of Wedded Love, the infinite attraction of Sex and its resultant in the Mother and the Child is revealed as the primæval Sinai of all religions that have been, that are, or that ever will be. I dare not conclude this survey of the century and its teachings without saying once more what was given me to say years ago in Holloway Gaol, and saying it too with a conviction that grows deeper with advancing years: "Be a Christ!" In these three words are summed up the vital essence of the Christian creed, and who knows but that in the Twentieth Century it may be possible to advance some steps nearer to the realisation of that ideal church, the Union of all who Love in the Service of all who Suffer?

HORATIO, VISCOUNT NELSON. 1758-1805.

CHAPTER II.

PERSONALITIES.

In the previous chapter I have attempted to delineate in broad and general outlines some leading characteristics of the Nineteenth Century. But by the mass of men the Century is remembered less by its movements and tendencies than by the personalities of the great men who have made its history. In writing of the Personalities of the Nineteenth Century, it is impossible for any one to rid himself of the influence of his environment. In the preceding chapter I have endeavoured, as far as possible, to look at the world from the standpoint of a cosmopolitan, and to form as impartial a judgment as possible of the influences which, in the course of the last hundred years have affected the destiny of the human race. In the present chapter I shall, of necessity, write more as an Englishman, and speak of the bright and particular stars which are visible from the meridian of Greenwich. Other observers in Paris, Washington or Melbourne, would naturally see many stars of the first magnitude which are practically invisible to the occupant of this island outpost of the European Continent. Just as the Southern Cross is invisible to dwellers in the Northern Hemisphere, so whole galaxies of great men and eminent personalities have never risen upon our horizon. Nevertheless, if each observer honestly describes that part of the starry firmament which lies within his ken, we shall in the end have a fairly good map of the heavens, a much better one than would be possible if each of us were to attempt by hearsay or secondhand, to describe what lay beyond his ken.

What Personalities, then, stand out conspicuous through the mists of time which are already shrouding the opening years of the Century? Greatness is a comparative term. The greatest stars at an immeasurable distance in space twinkle but as feeble rushlights compared with comparatively insignificant planets whose orbit is nearer our earth. This matter of proximity must always be taken into account in the estimates of comparative greatness. In treating this question, we do not ask for exact quantitative or qualitative measurements of intrinsic excellence. We ask ourselves which Personality at the beginning of this century shone with the steadiest and brightest ray before our eyes. There are few Englishmen in any rank of life who will not admit that, if we take our nation as a whole, including the highest as well as the lowest, there is one name which shines resplendent as the evening star in our English firmament. He may not be one of those "souls sublime which stream undimmed splendour o'er unmeasured time," but for the Century, at least, no person can be named in comparison with him. Alike by old and young, by rich and poor, and by all sorts and conditions of men, there is no National Hero who has been so continually present to the nation and whose memory has been on the whole so bright and inspiring as that of Nelson.

Compared with our great sea-king, who fell at Trafalgar, our other fighting hero, the Duke of Wellington, must hide his diminished head. He may have been the hero of a hundred fights; but he was never the idol of a nation's heart. Nelson combined in his own person almost every element needed to furnish forth an ideal hero for the English race. His genius, his courage, the very failings and frailties of the man, which reduce him to the level of our common humanity, combined to endear him to the English heart. This race, sprung from the sea rovers of the northern sea, never before found a sea-king more fearless and so invincible. What Napoleon was on the land to all Frenchmen, Nelson was on the sea to all men of the English race. He was supreme, without a peer, incomparable. But had he been a mere fighting man, a triumphant Viking, even though his sword had flamed like the falchion of Victory in the van of the hottest fight, his memory would not have dwelt as an ever-present inspiration in the heart of England. All his victories, even the lurid splendours of the Nile, would have been but dimly remembered after the lapse of a hundred years, had it not been for the crowning mercy of Trafalgar. On that great day of battle, when Nelson and his seamen smote down the pride of France and Spain, in the great fight which vested Britain for a hundred years with the sovereignty of the seas, Nelson, fortunate in his

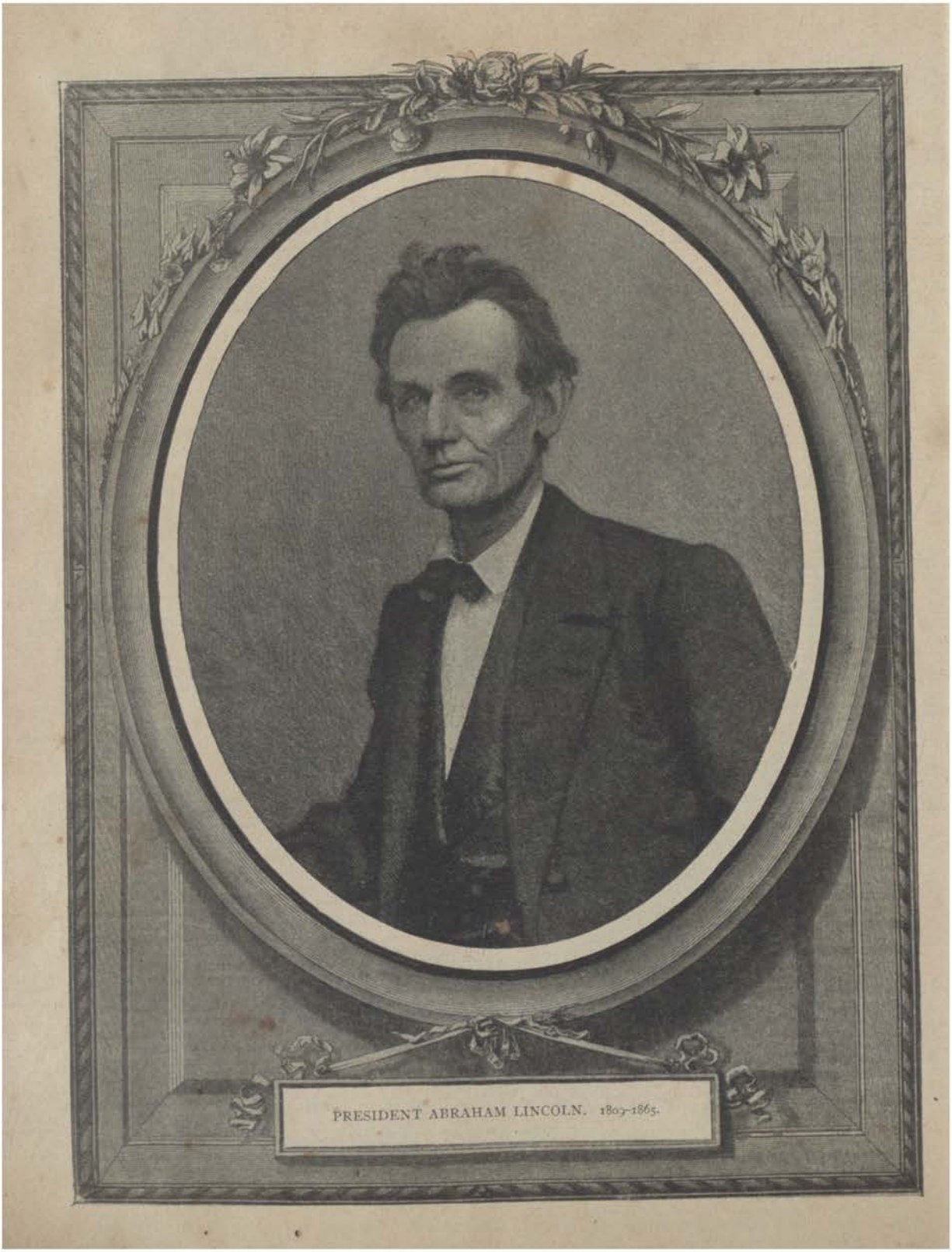
life, was still more fortunate in the moment of his death. The famous signal to the fleet, before they closed with the foe—"England expects every man to do his duty"—furnished his country with a Watchword for the Century. After that last utterance, he vanquished the combined navies of our two great rivals on the sea, he was fatally wounded and carried down into the cockpit of the *Victory* to die, the last hours of his life remain indelibly impressed upon the memory of his countrymen. Although suffering mortal agony, the genius of that god of naval war never faltered, nor would he consent, even when mortally stricken, to abandon his responsibility for the guidance and governance of the fleet committed to his charge. The instinct of command was with him to the last, and yet with it also there was manifested the tenderness of a woman for the captain upon whom was devolved the stress and strain of the fight, and the warm, affectionate thought for her whom he had loved not wisely but too well. Nelson's prayer before going to battle, his signal on engaging action, and the scene in the cockpit of the *Victory*, taken together, made him the darling of his countrymen, nor has the fascination died out even after the lapse of a hundred years. Fortunate, indeed, was it for England that at the very beginning of the Nineteenth Century, so noble, so pathetic a picture was photographed indelibly on the brain of her people. The Death of Nelson did for him immeasurably more than all his many victories, and raised him high above all his contemporaries, as his statue in Trafalgar Square towers above the monuments which surround its base.

If England was fortunate in Nelson, whose death baptised with hero's blood the opening years of the Century, she was not less fortunate in giving birth to another hero whose death in the last quarter of the Century lit up with radiance one of the most sombre pages of our nation's annals. The heroic history of the Nineteenth Century which began with Nelson, closed with Gordon. Between the death of Nelson in the cockpit of the *Victory*, and the day when Gordon fell, stabbed to death by Arab spears, behind the walls of Khartoum, no figure of equal lustre illumines our sky. Like Nelson, Gordon was happy in the hour of his death. It would have been an anti-climax after his heroic defence of the capital of the far Soudan, if he had returned to live the ordinary life of an ordinary man. From the time when he mounted his dromedary to cross the Libyan desert, to the last awful day when the words "Too late" were burnt as with molten iron upon the heart of England, Gordon shone transfigured before the world. His was the simplicity of a child, the faith of a saint, and the chivalry of a Paladin. In the midst of a somewhat dull and decadent generation, it was as if Bayard had come to life again, and was emulating on our modern earth the heroic exploits of the Paladin of chivalry and romance. What a relief it was during the whole of that year to look away from the squalid contests of faction at Westminster to the ramparts of the desert city, where alone amidst unnumbered foes Gordon kept watch for the honour of England! The past career of the man turned what might have been a somewhat gory splendour into the effulgence of pure white light. For although he was holding the fort against the Mahdi and his hordes, every one knew that the sympathy of his heart was with the dark-skinned race against whom it was his strange fate to wield his sword in war. It was not as the Conqueror, but as the Saviour of the Soudan that he went forth on his last perilous journey. In him also, as in Nelson, there was infinite tenderness; and his stainless memory is not even blurred by any record to which an enemy could point a censorious finger. Yet, although he was "a saintly shape of fame," he was also intensely human, full of kindly humour, of quick passion which often flamed up in fierce impatience, only to be followed by prompt contrition and humble confession as a penitent child. The vein of mysticism in his character, his strange speculations and his almost fatalistic faith in the governance of God, make him one of the most singularly attractive and picturesque figures in the history of the Century. Happy indeed is the land which, in the course of one brief century, could give to the world two such supreme types of ideal manhood as Nelson of the Nile and Gordon of Khartoum.

Nelson died in the moment of victory: Gordon in the hour of bitter disappointment and crushing defeat. One rose—the bright and morning star at the dawn of the Century, and his famous watchword is resonant of confident hope. Gordon's last words, which are perhaps not inappropriate to the closing century, were tinged with the sentiment of a man who felt himself deserted by his countrymen. We read the last sad entry in his journal with a thrill of shame:—

Dec. 14. We are going to send down "Bordeen" to-morrow with this journal. If I was in command of the 200 men of the Expeditionary Force, which are all that are necessary for the moment, I should stop just before Halfyeh and attack Arabs at that place before I came in here to Khartoum. I should then communicate with North Fort and act according to circumstances. Now mark this: if Expeditionary Force, and I ask for no more than 200 men, does not come in ten days, the

GENERAL CHARLES GEORGE GORDON. 1833-1885.



PRESIDENT ABRAHAM LINCOLN. 1809-1865.

town may fall, and I have done my best for the honour of my country. Good-bye.

C. G. GORDON.

You send me no information though you have lots of money.

It is a melancholy note which would seem to imply that the confidence expressed by her earlier hero—that each of England's sons would do his duty—was not borne out in the latter days of the Century by an equal readiness of England to do her duty to her heroic sons.

Among English-speaking men there is only one other whom we may mention in the same breath with Nelson and Gordon. He differed from both, in that he was a man of law, not a man of the sword. Abraham Lincoln, almost unknown until the second half of the century, has left behind him a memory that will not die. To what is now the greater half of the English-speaking world, Lincoln supplied much that Britons found in Nelson, and in Gordon. He was the first supreme type of the American race which has emerged on the stage of history. Washington, the only other President of America who can be named in the same breath with Lincoln, was born an English subject, educated in English ideas, and for all intents and purposes was the greatest English man of the eighteenth century. That it was his fate to rend her American colonies from the mother country was due to the fact that the old land, under the guidance of a Tory King and his subservient advisers, had apostatised from the true English ideals of government, which were vindicated by Washington against the Hessian Legions which were hired, fortunately in vain, to reduce our revolted Colonists to obedience. Abraham Lincoln was American through and through, and excepting that he spoke "the tongue that Shakespeare spake, the faith and morals held which Milton held," the motherland can claim no part in him. At the supreme moment of his country's destinies, when the fate of American freedom * trembled in the balance, and it seemed possible that the armed anarchy of the Old World was to be transplanted to the New, this western lawyer and quondam rail-splitter arose as the Man of Destiny. During his presidential term, although a man of peace, he had to put in motion the greatest armies that had ever been directed by a single will since the Asiatic hordes dashed themselves to pieces against the bulwark of Europe. He was as full of kindly humour as General Gordon, and as simple and human in all his ways. He was not a picturesque figure like a mediæval knight; but not King Arthur himself could have boasted a purer spirit of devotion to the common weal. Round his table sat no knights of legendary fame, but prosaic American citizens grappling with problems which they had never been trained to understand, and dealing with issues, the full import of which even he could but imperfectly realise. Nevertheless he "nothing common did or mean upon that memorable scene," but, supported by his good humour, shrewd mother wit, and inexhaustible patience, into five short years he crowded a lifetime of strenuous endeavour, displaying those qualities of unfaltering courage and of simple manly virtue which have made his name one which the world will wear ever next its heart. At the end of all, when the rebellion which had flamed heaven high from the Atlantic to the Mississippi had been trampled out, it was his proud privilege to fall, like Nelson, almost in the moment of victory. Death for him, as for Gordon and for Nelson, was a canonisation, and as the years of his Presidency recede farther and farther into the distance his name glows with still brighter radiance in the memory of mankind.

As Lowell sang:—

For him her old-world moulds aside she (Nature) threw,
And, choosing sweet clay from the breast
Of the unexhausted West.
With stuff untainted shaped a hero new,
Wise, steadfast in the strength of God and true,
Here was a type of the true elder race,
And one of Plutarch's men talked with us face to face,
Our children shall behold his fame,
The kindly earnest brave foreseeing man
Sagacious, patient, dreading praise not blame,
New birth of our new soil, the first American.

These three—Nelson, Lincoln, and Gordon—are like the chief of the mighty men whom David had to strengthen themselves with him in his kingdom. "These were the mightiest." But as in David's time, there were many other mighty men who were honourable among the thirty, but of them also it may be said that they attained not unto the first three.

Among the minor mighties, the first place will be accorded by most Englishmen to the Duke of Wellington, although in his case the gratitude of the nation which he had served and saved in arms was obscured by the prejudices

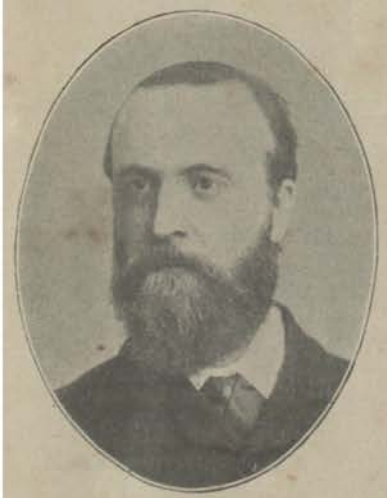
* President Lincoln's policy during the war has been so often misrepresented that it may be worth while quoting his own words, not only because of their bearing upon this question, but because they afford such excellent examples of his faculty of clear explicit simple utterance. On August 22nd, 1862, in a letter to Mr. Horace Greeley, President Lincoln wrote: "My paramount object in the struggle is to save the Union, and not either to save or destroy slavery. If I could save the Union without freeing any slave I could do it, and if I could save it by freeing all the slaves I would do it; and if I could save it by freeing some and leaving others alone, I would do also that. What I do about slavery and the coloured race, I do because I believe it helps to save the Union, and what I forbear, I forbear, because I do not believe it would help to save the Union."

ANDREAS HOFER.
TYROLESE PATRIOT. 1767–1810.

LOUIS KOSSUTH.
HUNGARIAN REVOLUTIONIST. 1802–1894.

DANIEL O'CONNELL.
IRISH ORATOR AND AGITATOR. 1775–1847.

GUISEPPE GARIBALDI.
ITALIAN PATRIOT AND GENERAL. 1780–1882.



CHARLES STUART PARNELL.
IRISH LEADER. 1846–1891.

S. J. PAUL KRUGER.
PRESIDENT OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC. BORN 1825.

KARL MARX.
GERMAN SOCIALIST. 1818–1883.

PATRIOTS AND REVOLUTIONISTS.

of party, when the Iron Duke became more familiarly known as the head of a Tory Government than as the conqueror of Napoleon. Tennyson's Ode has expressed in immortal verse the sentiments which the statesman-warrior inspired and still inspires among his countrymen.

> "Great in council, and great in war,
> Foremost captain of his time;
> Rich in saving common-sense.
> * * * * *
> Who never sold the truth to serve the hour,
> Nor palter'd with Eternal God for power;
> Whose life was work, whose language rife
> With rugged maxims hewn from life,
> Who never spoke against a foe.
> Truth-teller was one England's Alfred named,
> Truth-lover was one English Duke,
> Whatever record leap to light,
> He never shall be shamed."

After Wellington there comes a galaxy of heroic men revealed to the world by that ordeal of fire which we call the Indian Mutiny. The Lawrences, Havelock, Outram, Edwardes all may be mentioned among those who were in the line of heroes. Outside the Empire we find comparatively few men of this type whose character and achievements impressed their name upon the English imagination. Two men, however, stand out conspicuous, one whose name to-day would be almost forgotten were it not commemorated in Wordsworth's sonnets. The great struggle for liberty and independence in the Tyrol made Hofer one of the inspiring names of the first decade of the Century, and to-day the heroic resistance offered by the Boers to the devastators of their homes has recalled the memory and the exploits of the champion of Tyrolese independence.

To men of this generation and of that which immediately preceded it, no name was more famous than that of Garibaldi. That famous revolutionary hero incarnated for nearly a quarter of a century the romance and chivalry of modern Europe. I well remember, as an instance of the disproportionate importance attached to the personality of the hero, that when a great event which was destined permanently to affect the history of Europe—the news of the Battle of Sadowa and of the wounding of Garibaldi appeared on the same day, Garibaldi's wound figured much more prominently in the news-bills than the battle which gave Prussia the headship of Germany.

There was in Garibaldi also the simplicity of a child, while his daring, his selflessness, and his magical success won for him the enthusiastic admiration of our youth. Statesmen might shrug their shoulders, and philosophers belittle the achievements of Garibaldi and his red-shirts, but to us who were born in the middle of the Century no figure among all those which crowded the European stage possessed such a romantic charm as the Italian patriot. If Mazzini was the soul and Cavour the brain, Garibaldi was the sword of resurgent Italy. No crowned head ever received so magnificent and triumphal a reception as that which was accorded to Garibaldi when he visited our shores. More than any foreigner, he was idolised by our populace. To them he was the supreme type of the Soldier of Liberty, and his name was one to conjure with any time between 1849 and 1871.

In the last quarter of the century there seemed at one time a possibility that the Slavonic race had produced a man destined to become a hero famous far beyond the confines of his own country. The one great name which the Russo-Turkish War left on the popular memory was that of Skobeloff, who received from his admirers the title of the Russian Bayard. Had he really been Bayard in other qualities besides that of knightly valour, there is no knowing to what extent he might have dominated the history of his time. But unfortunately, brilliant warrior as he was, and eloquent as he was brave, he did not possess those qualities of self-restraint which were alone lacking to make him supreme in the Slavonic world. His death crushed with ruthless brutality the high hopes which were entertained by many of his countrymen.

If we may compare the heroes of the Century with the stars which burn like lambent flames in the midnight sky, there are others not less conspicuous, which can only be compared with the blood-red star whose rays exercise a malefic influence upon the fortunes of men. From the stand-point of the ordinary Englishman, this place of bad pre-eminence in the history of the Century would be accorded at once to the Third Napoleon. The first Napoleon was like a comet, blazing meteoric through space, but radiant with a good deal of divine light. His nephew, Napoleon III., rightly or wrongly, was regarded by the majority of Englishmen very differently. He was a baleful star, glowing with lurid flames kindled in nethermost Tophet. It is possible that this may be very unjust.* He may

* Whatever may be said concerning the guilt of Louis Napoleon it must in justice be admitted that his conduct was condoned, if not approved, by far greater majorities than any polled in support of British ministers who, like him, have the Ebon statues in the hall of Eblis.

On December 20th, 1848, Napoleon was proclaimed President, having been elected by 5,534,520 votes, the next highest being General Cavaignac with 1,448,302. When he was proclaimed after the *coup d'état* in November, 1850, the result of the voting for Louis Napoleon as President of the French Republic was 7,439,219 against 640,737. The result of the appeal to the people on the subject of reviving the Empire was as follows: Ayes, 7,864,189; Noes, 253,145; Nil, 63,326. Again, later, on May 8th, 1870, the plebiscite gave him 7,336,434 Ayes, against 1,560,709 Noes.

DUKE OF WELLINGTON.
1769-1852.

GEORGE CANNING.
1770-1827.

LORD MELBOURNE.
1779-1848.

WILLIAM PITT.
1757-1806.

SIR ROBERT PEEL.
1788-1850.

LORD DERBY.
1799-1869.

EARL OF ABERDEEN.
1784-1860.

PRIME MINISTERS OF BRITAIN—I.

have no right to such bad pre-eminence. But there is no doubt that, thanks largely to Kinglake and Victor Hugo, the Englishman of the mid-century could never see the Third Napoleon in the cold, impartial light of history. They saw red when they spoke of him, and no wonder, for they remembered the *coup d'état*, and his name was ever smeared with the blood that ran in the boulevards of Paris. From being regarded as a laughing-stock, he rapidly, justly or unjustly, came to be regarded as the typical despot, who had waded through slaughter to a throne, and not even the Treaty of Commerce and the efforts of Cobden were able to disabuse the English public of their suspicion and dread of Louis Napoleon.* When at last his throne fell crashing amid the thunders of Sedan, the majority of our people felt a glad glow of exultant triumph that at last the tardy foot of Nemesis had overtaken the supreme criminal. He lured us into the fatal blunder of the Crimean War. He marred the grace of the assistance which he rendered to Italy by the annexation of Nice and Savoy.† He launched Maximilian upon the treacherous adventure which led to his execution in Mexico. Finally, he plunged Europe into a war for which the test of battle proved he had made no adequate preparation. He was a corrupt and corrupting influence in the heart of Europe. His ascendency was the symbol of national degeneracy, and there were few who did not triumph in his fall.

* One of the few memorable utterances of the Third Napoleon may be quoted here. When he declared war against Prussia on July 23, 1870, addressing the Chamber of Commerce at Bordeaux, immediately before the Proclamation of the Empire, 1852, Louis Napoleon said: ". . . France desires a return to the Empire. There is one objection to which I must reply. Certain minds seem to entertain a dread of war; certain persons say the Empire is only war. But" (speaking with strong emphasis) "I say the Empire is peace, for France desires it, and when France is satisfied the world is tranquil." "We wish to conquer a lasting peace based on the true interests of peoples, and to put an end to that precarious state in which all nations employ their resources to arm themselves one against the other."

† Before the war, Napoleon made the following declaration: "Let France arm, and resolutely tell Europe, 'I desire not conquest, but I desire firmly to maintain my national and traditional policy. I observe the treaties on condition that no one shall violate them against me. I respect the territories and the rights of neutral Powers, but I boldly avow my sympathies for a people whose history is mingled with our own, and who groan under foreign oppression.'"

After the war was over, he said: "Looking to the transformation of Northern Italy, which has put all the passes of the Alps in the hands of a powerful State, it was my duty for the security of our frontier, to claim the French slopes of the mountains. This re-assertion of a claim to a territory of small extent has nothing in it of a nature to alarm Europe and give a denial to the policy of disinterestedness which I have proclaimed more than once; for France does not wish to proceed to this aggrandisement, however small it may be, either by military occupation, or by provoked insurrection, or by underhand manœuvres, but by frankly explaining the question to the Great Powers. They will, doubtless, understand their equity, as France would understand it for each of them under similar circumstances, that the important territorial rearrangement which is about to take place gives us a right to a guarantee indicated by nature herself."

Among the personalities of the Century comparatively few women stand conspicuous—with one great and significant exception. The personality of the Queen, her position and power in the State, only began to be appreciated in the latter part of the Century. When the Queen came to the throne, she was little more than a child, and on the very first occasion on which she displayed a will of her own she gave serious and, for the time, mortal offence to the Tory Party. Her peremptory message to Sir Robert Peel, dated May 10th, 1839, "The Queen, having considered the proposal made to her yesterday by Sir Robert Peel, to remove the Ladies of her Bedchamber, cannot consent to a course which she conceives to be contrary to usage, and is repugnant to her feelings," deprived all the tadpoles and tapers of Conservativism of their opportunity to draw those quarterly salaries which represent to them the achieved ideal of patriotic duty. The Queen herself has long since recognised that she made a mistake. She speedily repented, and never repeated it in the whole of the subsequent years of her reign. But the mistake, while it lasted, kept Lord Melbourne's Administration in power for months longer than constitutionally it was entitled to remain. Hence for some years the Queen was the object of the extravagant and not altogether disinterested adulation of O'Connell, and the butt of the hardly-concealed malice of the high-flying Tories of the time. O'Connell's famous declaration concerning the Queen in his younger days is worth quoting here. Speaking at Dublin May 20th, 1839, he said:—

"May the great God of heaven bless her!—that creature of only nineteen—lovely as she is young, and pure as she is exalted. She was something which might be dreamed of in chivalry or fairyland. There she was, in the power of the weakness of her sex. . . . But it was not her head that she consulted; it was from the overflowing feelings of her young heart that she was induced to take the course she so nobly pursued."

There are few rules more invariable than that there is a certain balance or proportion between praise and blame. When any one is extravagantly praised, it is certain that somewhere else they are being extravagantly blamed; but Her Majesty lived through both the praises of O'Connell and the maledictions of the Tories.

CLEMENS WENZEL PRINCE VON METTERNICH. 1773-1859.

She married, and for nearly twenty years her personality was more or less eclipsed by that of her husband. After Prince Albert's death, the early years of her widowhood still further obscured the important part which she played in public affairs. It was not until the seventies that the nation began to appreciate the personality of the Queen. Until then, she had only been regarded as a blameless figure-head, but within the last quarter of the century we have learned to recognise her as no less remarkable for statesmanship than distinguished for the practice of the domestic virtues. That she should have been able to interpose at the critical moment when peace and war with the United States of America hung trembling in the balance, and that she should in 1864 have been able, almost single-handed, to withstand the efforts made by Lord Palmerston to drag us into war with Germany, in the cause of Denmark, are two achievements the value of which, even now, is but inadequately realised. After the publication of Sir Theodore Martin's life of the Prince Consort, and still more after the first and second Jubilee, her subjects first really understood the services which the Queen had been rendering them, and the importance of her presence at the foretop of the State. As a moderating influence in ministerial crises, as a shrewd and sage counsellor in all difficult and delicate questions relating to foreign affairs, as an enthusiastic and loyal supporter of all who served her in diplomacy or in the field, she stands alone, the supreme example of capable womanhood. She combined the faithful discharge of her domestic duties with a close and constant attention to public affairs which puts most of her counsellors to shame. No one ever more faithfully lived up to the ideal embodied in Nelson's watchword, nor is the meanest of her subjects more punctilious in the discharge of all the duties, great and small, belonging to his station in life. She is not a showy queen. Histrionics are not her *forte*. She is not devoid of prejudice, and suffers from the prevailing weakness of her sex in a certain devotion to the redcoat, which has been very conspicuously displayed of late years. But she has ever brought a shrewd, homely common-sense to bear upon political affairs; she has always been animated by a keen instinct of imperial patriotism, and however much she has been the Queen, she has never for a moment forgotten the primary ties of womanhood which bind her to the mass of mankind. She is very human, and is certainly not "the faultless monster whom the world ne'er saw"; but take her all in all, we shall not look upon her like again. Catherine the Great, that Semiramis of the North, and Maria Theresa may be said to be the women of the eighteenth century as Queen Elizabeth was the woman of the sixteenth; and although each of them was much more fitted for the *rôle* of leading star in the company of tragi-comedians who play their little part upon the stage of history, the Nineteenth Century has no reason to shrink from comparing its daughter with any of her predecessors.

After the Queen, we naturally think of the counsellors who stood around her throne, and this introduces us to another group of famous personalities of the century. But more than a third of the century was over before Her Majesty ascended the throne, and a great group of famous statesmen had made their mark on the history of the times while she was still in her teens. Pitt, who died when the century was only five years old, was a man of the eighteenth century; nor can it be said that Addington or Liverpool made any brilliant mark on the history of their times. Of all the statesmen who flourished in the first decade of the century, only three are still remembered, and two are little more than names to any but the students of history. But no one can turn over the pages of the history of Europe without meeting at every turn the names of Talleyrand and Metternich. The tradition of Talleyrand survived for nearly half a century after his death —a combination of cynicism, of wit and of utter absence of scruple, a not unnatural product of the revolutionary age in which his lot was cast. Metternich was associated with the Congress of Vienna, and with the attempt on the part of the despotic Sovereigns of Europe to maintain the settlement of Vienna and to stamp out any embers still left glowing by the revolutionary outburst of 1789.

Associated with Metternich in the popular memory is Lord Castlereagh, who was popularly said to have given away Java because he did not know where it was, and whose name is embalmed in Tom Moore's malicious doggerel:—

> "Why is a pump like Viscount Castlereagh?
> Because it is a slender thing of wood,
> That up and down its arm perpetual sways,
> And spouts, and spouts, and spouts away
> In one weak, washy, everlasting flood."

His name was associated not merely with the Congress of Vienna, but with the period of reaction and repression which lasted from the Battle of Waterloo till the Battle of Peterloo, when England was seething with discontent, every now and then ripening into sedition. His tragic death by his own hand also tended to underline his name in the history of our time, just as the name of Perceval would almost have been forgotten had it not been for the fact of his assassination.

There also looms dimly through the mist of time in rude outline the form of Lord Eldon, who for more than the lifetime of a generation was the incarnation of Toryism on the woolsack —one of the few Lord Chancellors who has left a deep impression upon the popular imagination. To us, at the close of this century, his form appears solid, rude, massive, like an Egyptian granite god, sitting as the surly and immovable guardian of the edifice in which are preserved both the traditions and the abuses of the British Constitution in Church and State.

Among the prominent figures of the first quarter of the century were two very different individualities—the brilliant O'Connell and the erratic Brougham. Mr. Gladstone did much to keep green the memory of Canning, which he learnt to cherish in his youth, and which in his maturer age he found mighty convenient for the purpose of affording some historic precedent for his anti-Turkish policy. It is to be feared that Canning to-day is better remembered by his verses of the anti-Jacobin, especially by his "needy knife-grinder," than by any of his feats of statesmanship, although popular memory still retains an echo of his grandiloquent boast that he had "called the New World into existence to redress the balance of the Old"—a famous phrase, no doubt, but more remarkable for the showiness of its rhetoric than for the solidity of the fact to which it referred.

Very different was Lord Brougham, a man whose character, antithetically mixed, displayed at times the characteristics of a Thersites and a Wilkes combined, and who seemed strangely out of place under the wig of a Lord Chancellor. There can only be one Brougham in a century. He was a man of undoubted genius, but of unbridled eccentricity and egotism. It is difficult to realise, when reading some of his ferocious Philippics against the sovereigns of the Holy Alliance, that the orator was ever Lord Chancellor of England. Certainly none of his successors in later times emulated the unbridled violence of his eloquence.

When we are nearing the thirties, we come upon the first great figure among English statesmen of the century, a great figure but a little man—Lord John Russell—who entered Parliament in 1813, and who was Prime Minister of the Queen forty years later. It is as Lord John Russell, not as Earl Russell, that the great Whig is remembered by his countrymen. For fifty years his familiar form may be seen busily engaged in every phase of English politics. He bore himself nobly, as a Whig should, in the cause of civil and religious liberty. He distinguished himself less honourably in the domain of foreign politics. He had an incurable itch or interfering in the affairs of the Continent, which has been punished perhaps too severely by the branding epithet attached to his policy of "meddle and muddle." Nevertheless in foreign affairs he was in many respects more liberal than many of the Radicals who came after him. His instincts were on the side of liberty, which he loved with a zeal not always according to discretion. His famous despatch to the British Ambassador at St. Petersburg, during the Polish insurrection, may be regarded as a monumental example of the ignorant arrogance which characterised his foreign policy. Imagine a British Foreign Minister nowadays sending the following despatch to a foreign court in the throes of repressing an insurrection :—

Earl Russell wrote on March 2nd, 1863, to the British minister at St. Petersburg, that Her Majesty's Government view with the deepest concern the state of things now existing in Poland :—

"Great Britain, as a party to the Treaty of 1815, and as a Power deeply interested in the tranquility of Europe, deems itself entitled to express its opinions upon the events now taking place, and is anxious to do so in the most friendly spirit towards Russia, and with a sincere desire to promote the interests of all parties concerned. Why does not his Imperial Majesty, whose benevolence is generally and cheerfully acknowledged, put an end at once to this bloody conflict by proclaiming mercifully an immediate and unconditional amnesty to his revolted Polish subjects, and at the same time announce his intention to replace without delay his kingdom of Poland in possession of the political and civil privileges which were granted to it by the Emperor Alexander I. in execution of the stipulations of the Treaty of 1815? If this were done a national Diet and a national Administration would in all probability content the Poles, and satisfy European opinion."

But Lord John Russell was always singularly swayed by the gusts of popular passion. Of this the most conspicuous instance was the headlong zeal with which he flung himself into the foolish outcry raised against the assumption of territorial titles by the Roman Catholic Bishops, which was described as a "Papal Aggression." *Punch* has seldom more happily hit off any incident in English history, than when it represented Lord John Russell as a little boy who wrote up "No Popery" on the wall and then ran away.

Few more characteristic passages can be quoted than this sentence from Lord John's letter to the Bishop of Durham, November 4th, 1850, "I agree with you in considering the late aggression of the Pope upon our Protestantism as insolent and insidious, and I therefore feel as indignant as you can do upon the subject. . . . There is an assumption of power in all the documents which have come from Rome, a pretension of supremacy over the realm of England, and a claim to sole and undivided sway, which is inconsistent with the Queen's supremacy, with the rights of our bishops and clergy, and with the spiritual independence of the nation as asserted even in the Roman Catholic times."

PRINCE GORTSCHAKOFF.
RUSSIAN. 1798–1883.

FRANCIS DEAK.
HUNGARIAN.
1803–1876.

COUNT DI CAVOUR.
ITALIAN. 1810–1861.

JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN.
ENGLISH. BORN 1836.

FRANCESCO CRISPI.
ITALIAN. BORN 1819.

LI HUNG CHANG.
CHINESE.

CELEBRATED STATESMEN.

He did nothing to restrain the nation within the bounds of sobriety and sanity, in any of the great foreign crises through which the country passed during the period of his ascendency. His influence indeed may be said to have been exercised on the wrong side in the Crimean War, the American War, and the Dano-German War. Despite all this, he was not so bad as Lord Palmerston, who may be regarded as the first of the school of Jingo statesmen, of whom Mr. Chamberlain is the latest and most characteristic representative. In his later days Lord John will be chiefly remembered by his famous exhortation to the progressive Radicals to "Rest and be thankful"—advice which they did not take. On the whole, however, although meddlesome and self-assertive, Russell was faithful to the traditions of his house, and he played a great, and, on the whole, a noble *rôle* in the long struggle to secure for Nonconformists and Roman Catholics the full rights and privileges of British citizenship.

Lord John Russell's career bridges over the gap which yawns between Mr. Canning and Mr. Gladstone. The most conspicuous figure in English politics of the first half of the middle century was unquestionably Sir Robert Peel, the greatest member of Parliament the House of Commons has ever seen. Peel may be regarded as the ideal type of the sober, level-headed middle-class man, with a genius for the management of parliaments. By some strange irony of events he is best known by the manner in which he secured the success of policies to which he had once offered his strenuous opposition. It is seldom given to any minister to execute two such capitulations as those which are associated with the name of Peel.

He opposed Catholic Emancipation for years, and then assisted in placing it on the statute-book; then he was the trusted champion of Protection, only to crown his career by establishing Free-Trade. That he did both those things without sacrificing his reputation for honesty of purpose is the best tribute which could be paid to the character of any man. The name of Peel is best remembered as the statesman who gave the cheap loaf to the people of England. He was a convert at the eleventh hour, converted more by the famine in Ireland than by the efforts of the Anti-Corn Law League;* but he had a mind open to conviction, and he never resisted the logic of facts. One of his subsidiary titles to a temporary immortality is now almost forgotten. We owe to him the establishment of the modern system of police, and thirty years ago "Peeler" was as common a soubriquet as "Bobby" is to-day. "Peeler" has now fallen into disuse, and the mere familiar "Bobby" is seldom associated in the popular mind with the name of Sir Robert.

Lord Melbourne, the favourite counsellor of the Queen in her teens, is chiefly remembered to-day by the question always coupled with his name, "Why can't you let it alone?" Grey and Durham, the authors of the Reform Act, are remembered—if remembered at all—in the North of England, where monuments still survive erected by grateful north-countrymen to the heroes of the great struggle for the emancipation of the middle-class. To Lord Aberdeen justice has never been done, and his name is unfortunately associated with the beginning of the war to which, more than any other English statesman, he was most opposed on principle.

The mention of his name brings us to the progenitor of the Jingoes of our time. Lord Palmerston had long been in Parliament before he finally emerged as a leading figure in English politics a few years before the Crimean war. He was the first of the Jingoes, a Jingo of the Whig variety, as Lord Beaconsfield was a Tory, and Mr. Chamberlain a Radical.

The same distinctive note is found in all three. It is sounded by Lord Palmerston in the debate on the 24th June, 1850, when he was defending his policy with regard to Greece in a debate raised by Mr. Roebuck.

"On the evening of the 25th June, 1850, Lord Palmerston spoke in defence of his policy for five hours—from the dusk of a summer evening to the dawn of a summer morning. He deemed the doctrine advanced from the other side, that British subjects in foreign lands were entitled to no protection but that of the laws and tribunals of the country in which they might happen to be—a doctrine on which no English minister had acted, and which the people of England would never suffer. . . . He challenged the verdict of the House whether, as a subject of ancient Rome could hold himself free from indignity by saying "Civis Romanus sum," a British subject in a foreign country should not be protected by the vigilant eye and the strong arm of his Government against injustice and wrong."

* Writing to Sir James Graham on October 13th, 1845, Sir Robert Peel said: "The accounts of the state of the potato crop in Ireland are becoming very alarming. . . . I foresee the necessity that may be impressed upon us at an early period of considering whether there is not that well-grounded apprehension of actual scarcity that justifies and compels the adoption of every means of relief which the exercise of the prerogative or legislation might afford. I have no confidence in such remedies as the prohibition of exports or the stoppage of distilleries. The removal of impediments to import is the only effectual remedy."

It is notable that Lord Palmerston no sooner initiated this doctrine than it was criticised and contested by Mr. Gladstone, so that the great Jingo and the great anti-Jingo may be said to have made their début in the same debate. Mr. Gladstone said:—

"He protested against the doctrine of Lord Palmerston that we were to be the censor of the vice and police of all the people in the world, the teacher of the nations, and that all who do not think proper to admit the assumption must have diplomatic war declared against them."

For the next fifteen years Lord Palmerston remained a conspicuous champion of British self-assertiveness in every part of the world. He began with Greece, and five years later he had an opportuuity of asserting himself on a wider field. On the fall of Lord Aberdeen, he gave full vent to that fatal Russophobia which has been the bane of English policy ever since. No sooner had peace been made in the Crimea, than he involved us in war with China, and, being defeated in the House of Commons, appealed to the country in terms which read curiously like an anticipation of a good deal of electioneering that has taken place this year:—

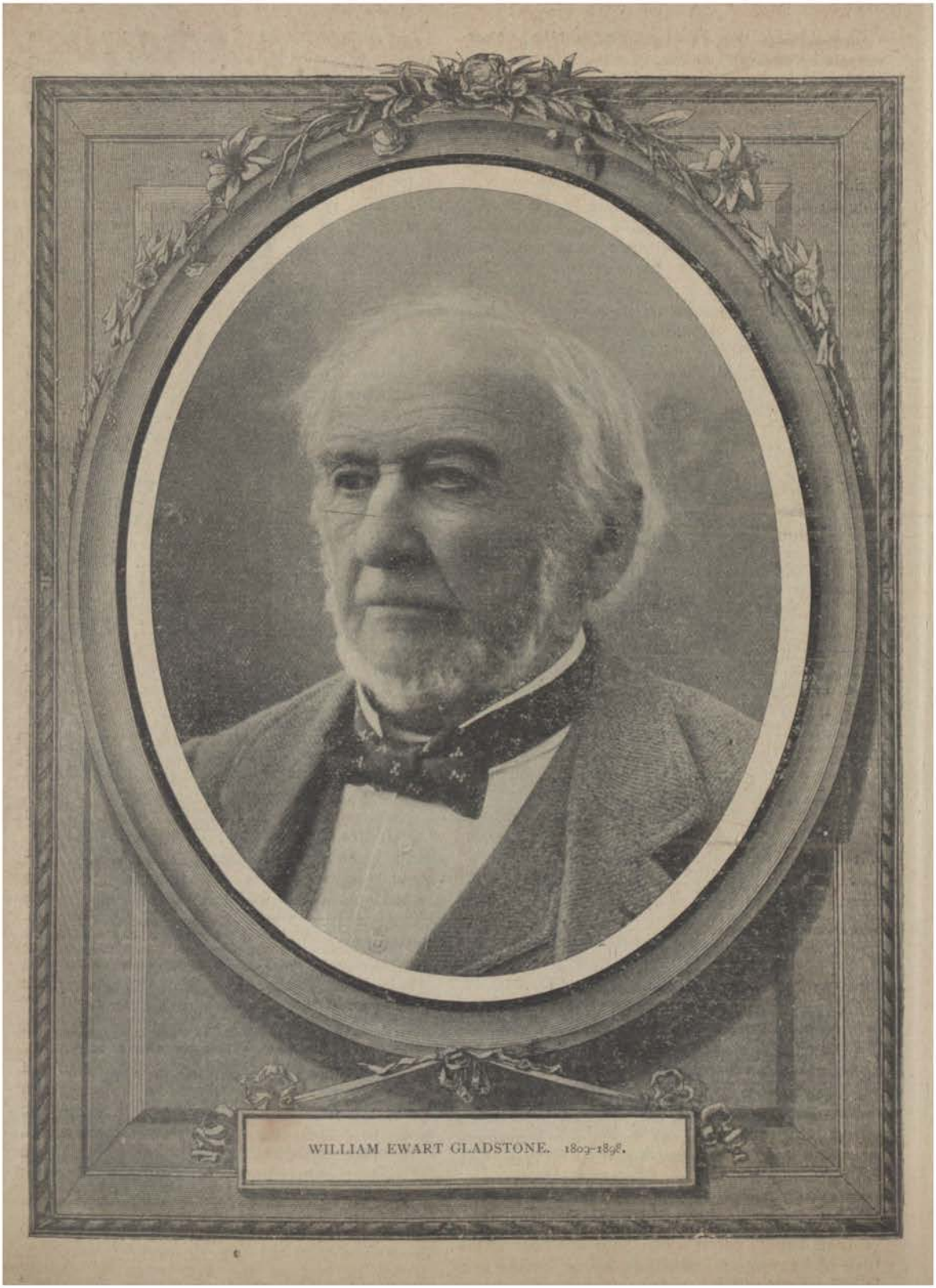
"An insolent barbarian, wielding authority at Canton, violated the British flag, broke the engagments of treaties, offered rewards for the heads of British subjects in that part of China, and planned their destruction by murder, assassination, and poison. The British officers—civil and naval—on the station took those measures which appeared to them to be proper and necessary to obtain satisfaction and redress; and Her Majesty's Government had approved the course pursued by those officers in vindication of the national honour, and for the assertion of our national rights . . . . Will the British nation give their support to men who have thus endeavoured to make the humiliation and degradation of their country the stepping-stone to power?"

Jingoism in that day scored as conspicuous a victory as it has done in the last year of the Century. Mr. Bright, Mr. Cobden and Mr. Milner Gibson were relegated for a time to private life, and Lord Palmerston came in on the crest of a Jingo wave. It is characteristic of the Jingo that Lord Palmerston should have displayed an extraordinary alacrity in condoning the *coup d'état* of Louis Napoleon—an act which brought him into disgrace with his Sovereign, who from that time exercised sharp vigilance over his excursions into the field of European policy. He shared with Lord Russell the discredit of our policy in relation to the American Civil War and the Dano-German war. But his teeth were fortunately drawn, although he remained in power till his death.

The disappearance of the first of the Jingoes properly precedes the advent of the great anti-Jingo, who for the rest of the century was the most conspicuous figure in English politics. Mr. Gladstone, who in 1850 opposed Lord Palmerston, nevertheless served with him in the Cabinet of 1860, and under his Premiership achieved the most brilliant of his financial triumphs. But there was always a deep-seated antipathy, not so much personal as political, between the two men. Lord Palmerston is credited with the prediction that Mr. Gladstone would end his days in a mad-house, while Mr. Gladstone was in the sharpest antagonism with him on almost every political question involving moral considerations. Whether in Church or State, the two men approached every question from opposite poles. Mr. Gladstone, as a very High Churchman, found little sympathy in the worldly Erastianism of Lord Palmerston. His Radical sympathies with the masses of the people were equally opposed to the nonchalance of the Whig aristocrat; but it was in foreign affairs that the antagonism was most marked.

Mr. Gladstone, who had begun as the hope of the stern unbending Tories, and whose first notable publication was a defence of the principles of the Church Establishment, became, by a process of natural evolution, the supporter of the Irish and the Disestablishment of the Irish Church, and the advocate for a measure of Home Rule in Ireland which may without exaggeration be described as revolutionary. No statesman in our time, not even Mr. Chamberlain, shifted his position so frequently, yet no one ever impressed the masses of the people with such a deep conviction as to his earnestness and honesty. It was not until the close of the Palmerston *régime* that he became really popular, as the "People's William" of the *Daily Telegraph*. Peelites, as a rule, did not appeal to the imagination of the people, and down to the middle sixties Mr. Gladstone was chiefly regarded as a brilliant financier and a great political economist. His emergence into popular favour may be dated from the time when he made his famous "flesh and blood" speech, when he asked, in reply to an attack upon the working-classes, "Are they not, after all, our own flesh and blood?" The last trace of the earlier Gladstone was the indiscreet speech at Newcastle, in which he declared that the Southern States had made themselves a nation. It is, however, only fair to his memory to quote the explanation which he gave in subsequent years.

On August 8th, 1867, Mr. Gladstone, explaining to a correspondent in New York his statement in the Newcastle banquet, that the South had really formed itself into an independent nation, writes: "I must confess



WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE. 1809-1898.

that I was wrong; that I took too much upon myself in expressing such an opinion. Yet the motive was not bad. My 'sympathies' were then—where they had long before been, where they are now—with the whole American people. I probably, like many Europeans, did not understand the nature and working of the American Union. I had imbibed conscientiously, if erroneously, an opinion that twenty or twenty-four millions of the North would be happier, and would be stronger (of course, assuming that they would hold together) without the South than with it, and also that the negroes would be much nearer to emancipation under a Southern Government than under the old system of the Union, which had not at that date (August, 1862) been abandoned, and which always appeared to me to place the whole power of the North at the command of the slave-holding interests of the South. As far as regards the special or separate interest of England in the matter, I, differing from any others, had always contended that it was best for our interest that the Union should be entire."

His rejection by Oxford University marks the watershed of his career. On the day when he appeared in the Free Trade Hall at Manchester, he declared in his famous phrase, "At last, my friends, I am come among you, and I am come—to use an expression which has become very famous and is not likely to be forgotten—I am come among you unmuzzled." But it was not until the following year, when he closed the debate which led to the rejection of the Reform Bill, that he was universally recognised as the destined leader of the Radical Party. That peroration, echoes of which still linger, after the lapse of forty-three years, is worth quoting: He closed the debate with the renewed assurance that the Government would stand or fall by the bill. "We stand with it now," he said, "we may fall with it a short time hence, and if we do we shall rise with it hereafter. I shall not attempt to measures with precision the forces that are to be arrayed in the coming struggle. Perhaps the great division of to-night is not the last that must take place in the struggle. You may possibly succeed at some point of the contest. You may drive us from our seat. You may bury the Bill that we have introduced, but for its epitaph we will write upon its gravestone this line, with certain confidence in its fulfilment—

"Exoriare aliquis nostris ex ossibus ultor."

"You cannot fight against the future. Time is on our side. The great social forces which move on in their might and majesty, and which the tumult of our debates does not for a moment impede or disturb—those great social forces are against you; they are marshalled on our side, and the banner which we now carry, though perhaps at this moment it may droop over our sinking heads, yet it soon again will float in the eye of heaven, and it will be borne by the firm hands of the united people of the three kingdoms, perhaps not to an easy, but to a certain and to a not distant victory."

His Bill was defeated, but the cause of working-class enfranchisement progressed by leaps and bounds, and the first result of the enfranchisement of the borough householders was the return of Mr. Gladstone to power at the head of an enthusiastic and overwhelming majority.

The period from 1868 to 1873 may be regarded as indicating the high water-mark of Liberalism in this country. The defeat of the Irish University Bill warned the country that even a Gladstone Administration had feet of clay, and the following year not even the offer to abolish the income tax was sufficient to avert the return of a hostile majority. In estimating the hold Mr. Gladstone had established upon the imagination of his countrymen, it is necessary to remember the unexpected and dramatic character of his actions. In 1874 he startled everyone by the dissolution and the proposed abrogation of the income tax. No sooner was he defeated than he amazed his followers by declaring that he had arrived at a time of life when it was necessary for him to prepare for his latter end, and therefore he must surrender the leadership. Lord Hartington had hardly become warm in the saddle, when the Bulgarian atrocities caused Mr. Gladstone to emerge from his hermitage at Hawarden, and ride on the whirlwind of a storm of popular indignation against the pro-Turkish policy of England.* The campaign of 1880 was fought, and won by him in a campaign of combined passion, eloquence and argument which simply swept the country. After five years' Administration, his second Government toppled to its fall, and before twelve months were over, he had once more dazzled and

* Perhaps the most famous political phrase of the century, more memorable than Mr. Bright's "Perish Savoy," or the "Meddle and Muddle" description of Lord J. Russell's foreign policy, was Mr. Gladstone's "Bag and Baggage" prescription for the case of Bulgaria. On September 6, 1876, Mr. Gladstone, in his famous pamphlet on the Bulgarian Horrors, advocated the expulsion of the governing Turk bag and baggage from Bulgaria. He demanded that "the Turks should carry away these abuses in the only possible way, viz., by carrying off themselves." He saw that the administrative action of the Ottoman Government must be removed from Bosnia and Herzegovina, and above all from Bulgaria, upon which at best there will remain for years and for generations, the traces of its foul and bloody hand. Three days later he addressed a great meeting at Blackheath, in which he said he would address the Turk thus: "You shall receive a reasonable tribute, you shall retain your titular sovereignty, your Empire shall not be invaded; but never again, while the years roll on in their course, so far as it is in our power to determine, never again shall the hand of violence be raised by you, never again shall the floodgates of lust be opened by you, never again shall the dire refinement of cruelty be devised by you, for the sake of making mankind miserable in Bulgaria."

EARL OF BEACONSFIELD. 1804–1881.

LORD PALMERSTON. 1784–1865.

LORD JOHN RUSSELL. 1792–1878.

WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE.
1809–1898.

LORD ROSEBERY. Born 1847.

MARQUIS OF SALISBURY. Born 1830.

PRIME MINISTERS OF BRITAIN—II.

dismayed the country by declaring himself in favour of Home Rule. A few months of office led to the inevitable defeat, and the Unionist Party came into power. But even then the resources of the Grand Old Man appeared to be inexhaustible. When the next Election came, he was again installed in office, with a Home Rule majority and a mandate from the country to carry out his policy. Successful in the House of Commons, he was defeated in the House of Lords, and then he once more dismayed his followers by resigning the Premiership, nominally on the ground of health, but in reality because of his insuperable repugnance to Lord Spencer's programme for the strengthening of the Navy. Even then his period of retirement was brief, for the recurrence of the Armenian atrocities led him to pop up again. It was the last flicker of the light which had shone as a great Pharos before the eyes of a whole generation. He was equally idolised and detested during his life, but since his death his most recalcitrant followers have had ample occasion ruefully to confess that they never appreciated his value as a leader until he was lost to them for ever. The very magnitude of the man dwarfed those who grew up under his shade. It would seem as if he had drawn unto himself all the capacity for leadership found in his party, and, when he fell, there were none but miserable weaklings—children of indecision and petulance—to inherit his position. As Mr. Bright said, his great power lay in the extent to which he brought moral enthusiasm to bear as a force in political life. He combined the unhesitating enthusiasm of the fanatic with the long-headed calculation of the man of affairs. Many passages might be quoted from the oratory which often swayed the House of Commons as the wind sways the ripe corn; but few perhaps were more elevated than when he pleaded, and, alas, pleaded in vain, to the House of Commons in 1886, to accept Home Rule.

"Ireland," the Prime Minister concluded, in his loftiest and most impressive style, which even he himself had never surpassed in his earlier days, "Ireland stands at your bar, expectant, hopeful, almost suppliant. Her words are the words of truth and soberness. She asks a blessed oblivion of the past, and in that oblivion our interest is deeper than even hers. My right hon. friend, Mr. Goschen, asks us to-night to abide by the traditions of which we are the heirs. What traditions? By the Irish tradition? Go into the length and breadth of the world, ransack the literature of all countries, find, if you can, a single voice, a single book—find, I would almost say, as much as a single newspaper article, unless the product of the day, in which the conduct of England towards Ireland is anywhere treated except with profound and bitter condemnation. Are these the traditions by which we are exhorted to stand? No, they are a sad exception to the glory of our country. They are a broad and black blot upon the pages of its history; and what we want to do is to stand by the traditions in which we are the heirs in all matters except our relations to Ireland, and to make our relations to Ireland to conform to the other traditions of our country. So I have the demand of Ireland for what I call a blessed oblivion of the past. She asks also a boon for the future; and that boon for the future, unless we are much mistaken, will be a boon to us in respect of honour no less than a boon to her in respect of happiness, prosperity, and peace. Such, Sir, is her prayer. Think, I beseech you, think well, think wisely, think not for a moment, but for the years that are to come, before you reject this Bill." *

It is probable that at no time during the century was there a keener, more dramatic interest in public affairs than during the years when Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Disraeli confronted each other as rival parliamentary leaders in the House of Commons. After Mr. Disraeli became Lord Beaconsfield, Mr. Gladstone towered aloft in Parliament without a rival, without a peer. But, until that fatal elevation to the Peerage, which is so often the ante-chamber of death, the two great gladiators confronted each other nightly in the parliamentary arena, and riveted the attention of the public upon their incessant combats. The contest perpetually reminded the onlooker of one in which the *retiarius*, with his net and his spear, endeavours to entangle his opponent, who, armed with sword and shield, maintains a steady foot and vigilant eye, baffling the efforts of his more agile adversary. Mr. Disraeli entered Parliament after Mr. Gladstone, but he earlier achieved a leading position in the House. Yet from the first Mr. Gladstone commanded respect and admiration, whereas Mr. Disraeli, on his début in Parliament in 1837, was the laughing-

* As an illustration of the evolution of Mr. Gladstone's political ideas contrast the above eloquent exordium with the remarks he made on Home Rule. On September 26th, 1871, when acknowledging the Freedom of the City of Aberdeen, Mr. Gladstone said: "If the doctrine of Home Rule were to be established in Ireland, they would be just as well entitled to it in Scotland;" and, moreover, "I protest on behalf of Wales, that they are entitled to Home Rule there. Can any sensible man, can any rational man, suppose that at this time of day, in this condition of the world, we are going to disintegrate the great capital institutions of this country for the purpose of making ourselves ridiculous in the sight of all mankind, and crippling any power we possess for bestowing benefits through legislation on the country to which we belong?"

stock of the House. No parliamentary anecdote in the century is more familiar than that which describes how, after struggling for a time against inextinguishable laughter, Disraeli sat down, declaring that he had "begun several times things, and he had often succeeded at last. He would sit down now, but the time would come when they would hear him." Within less than ten years from that time he had won a position not merely as "the Red Indian of debate," with a tongue like a scalping-knife, but he was recognised as the inevitable leader of the Protectionist Party after the great apostacy of Peel. From that time onward his supremacy on his own side of the House of Commons was undisputed. The proud aristocracy of England, whom he loved to satirise in his novels, were captives of his bow and spear. He led them whithersoever he pleased, until at last, after much educating of his party, he succeeded in bringing them to take the famous leap in the dark which established the reign of Democracy in England. To observers at this time he was a kind of political Pied Piper of Hamelin, who, discoursing weird music on his magic flute, led the whole Conservative Party spell-bound into the stream of modern progress, in which the old Toryism perished for ever. Carlyle, who used to quote with gusto O'Connell's description of Mr. Disraeli as "the lineal descendant of the impenitent thief," has a famous passage in his "Shooting of Niagara" on this subject:—

"A Hebrew conjuror, safely binding all the great lords, great parties, and great interests of England to his hand in this manner, and leading them by the nose like helpless, mesmerised, somnambulent cattle, to such an issue—did the world ever see a febrile *ludibrium* of such magnitude before? Lath, sword, and scissors of destiny, pickle-herring and the three Parcæ, alike busy in it."

Carlyle noted with a certain Schadenfreude, that "he they called Dizzy was to do this thing. Other jugglers of an unconscious and deeper type, having sold their poor mother's body for a mess of official pottage, this clever, conscious juggler steps in. 'Soft you, my honourable friends; I will weigh out the corpse of your mother—mother of mine she never was, but only step-mother and milch-cow—and you shall have the pottage,; not yours, you observe, but mine.'" *

* Defending himself from adverse criticism after the passage of the Reform Bill, at the Conservative banquet given to him in Edinburgh Corn Exchange, Mr. Disraeli said: "Now mark this, because there are things which you may not have heard in any speech which has been made in the city of Edinburgh. I had to prepare the mind of the country, and to educate—if it be not arrogant to use such a phrase—to educate our party. It is a large party, and requires its attention to be called to questions of this kind with some pressure."

Carlyle to the end of his life cherished a deep contempt for Disraeli, mingled with a certain admiration for his toughness and that element of leathery magnanimity which led him to ignore the insults of his enemies. "He was a man who had no conscience," said Carlyle—"who knew he had no conscience, and was verra weel pleased that it was so." If he had not a conscience, he had at least a histrionic imagination, and no man knew better than he how to pose before the footlights. Yet there was ever about him a certain sardonic reserve, a certain sphinx-like immobility of countenance which contributed not a little to the spell which he undoubtedly cast over his followers, and not his followers only. It is difficult to say to what extent his Jewish origin helped him or hindered him in his public career. He was entirely free from the accusation usually brought against men of his race, for none of the sordid imputations such as those which sully the repute of Mr. Chamberlain, were ever attached to his name. Although a plebeian and an adventurer, the pride of a descendant of a hundred earls faded into insignificance compared with the sentiment with which Disraeli habitually regarded his race. The men whom he used and led were but gutter-blooded, snub-nosed Saxons, compared with the Semitic aristocracy of the world to which he was proud to belong. In some of his earlier novels, he displayed a sympathy with the sufferings of the masses of his people, to which he was led the more readily by his antagonism to the lords of mills and factories who constituted the strength of the Free Trade Party; but never in the whole of his political career, did he drop one kindling phrase or express a sentiment capable of rousing the enthusiasm or the gratitude of the Democracy which he enfranchised. If he established household suffrage in England, he did it as a move in the party game, although it may be admitted that he, better than any man in Parliament, realised the possibility of utilising the residuum of the electorate in support of "our ancient institutions." He did really succeed in getting behind the north wind of Radicalism, which blew keen and cold from the headquarters of Democracy. Lord Randolph Churchill, imagining that he would achieve a similar result in Ireland, only succeeded in repeating the exploit of the monkey who borrowed his master's razor. But Disraeli was not a man to be imitated; he stood, and stands alone, a solitary and somewhat enigmatic figure, more capable of inspiring fear by the scathing bitterness of his tongue than of exciting enthusiasm by the generosity or the loftiness of his ideals. No one denied that he

ALEXIS DE TOCQUEVILLE.
FRENCH POLITICAL PHILOSOPHER AND STATESMAN. 1805–1859.

BARTHOLD GEORG NIEBUHR.
DANISH HISTORIAN AND PHILOLOGIST.
1776–1831.

FRANÇOIS P. G. GUIZOT.
FRENCH HISTORIAN AND STATESMAN.
1787–1874.

LORD MACAULAY.
1800–1859.

E. A. FREEMAN.
1823–1892.

J. A. FROUDE.
1818–1894.

NOTED HISTORIANS.

had ideals, but they seemed exotic on our soil. The masses appreciated the rapier-like thrusts of his mordant wit, the scathing severity of his sarcasm, but they relished most those occasions on which he abandoned himself to a slogging match and revelled in vituperate invective. The "plundering and blundering" epistle which he dispatched to Lord Grey de Wilton when he was standing for Bath in October, 1873, is a compact compendium of political abuse, a kind of vituperative pemmican much appreciated at that time. "For nearly five years the present ministers have harassed every trade, worried every profession, and assailed or menaced every class, institution, and species of property in the country. Occasionally they have varied this state of civil warfare by perpetrating some job which outraged public opinion, or by stumbling into mistakes which have been always discreditable, and sometimes ruinous. All this they call a policy, and seem quite proud of it; but the country has, I think, made up its mind to close this career of plundering and blundering."

In his later days he seldom permitted himself that liberty of invective with which he was accustomed to scarify his political opponents. When he returned from Berlin, puffed up by the applause of his followers, he could not resist the temptation of hinting that Mr. Gladstone had better go to a lunatic asylum, and describing him as "a sophistical rhetorician inebriated with the exuberance of his own verbosity."

In foreign politics Mr. Disraeli was more of an Asiatic than of an European, and he will be chiefly remembered for his persistent attempts from 1876 to 1878 to involve this country in war with Russia, and in a less degree for his having vulgarised the style of the Crown by dubbing the Queen "Empress of India." Until his premiership in 1874, he had had little opportunity of displaying the real drift and tendency of his somewhat vague declarations in favour of the Empire. In his earlier days he regarded the Colonies as "wretched millstones hanged about our necks," and even on the subject of Russia he had shown himself by no means infected with the vulgar malady of Russophobia. "Asia," he declared on one celebrated occasion, "was large enough for both Russia and England;" and even in the midst of the fool-frenzy engendered by the Russo-Turkish War, he administered a stern rebuke to those panic-mongers who were always declaring that Herat or some other place on the Afghan frontier was the key to India. "London," said he, "is the key to India." But when he was Prime Minister, the Eastern question ripened towards a crisis which afforded him an opportunity of displaying his statesmanship on the widest scale. How far he failed, may be gathered from the fact that the net result of his diplomacy was to bring the Russian Army to the walls of Constantinople, to break up the Ottoman Empire in Europe, and to transfer its Asiatic strongholds to the hands of her Russian conqueror. As the direct consequence of his Turkish policy, we had the disastrous Third Afghan War,* and at the end of his Administration, the country in whose nostrils he had made the very name of Imperialism to stink, flung him from office, and established Mr. Gladstone in power with an enormous majority. It may be said that Mr. Disraeli was not responsible for the Russo-Turkish War, which he endeavoured to avert, but Mr. Disraeli was responsible for not seeing that the Russo-Turkish War could only be averted in one way, viz., the coercion of the Sultan by the united forces of all Europe. That was Mr. Gladstone's policy. Against this Mr. Disraeli favoured the policy of acting as injudicious bottle-holder to the Sultan of Turkey, of provoking Russia, and then, when the crucial moment came, of rushing in, and fighting not one or two, but, if need be, three campaigns for the destruction of the Russian power. Here again, he failed to recognise the restraining forces which rendered it impossible for him to commit the country to a war for which she was totally unprepared. The whole of his Turkish policy from the time when he sneered at the reports of the Bulgarian horrors as "coffee-house babble," down to the fraudulent "conveying" of Cyprus and the hollow farce of bringing Peace with Honour from Berlin, was an affair of tinsel and make-believe, a hollow mockery and fraud from which we are still suffering, and likely to suffer for years to come. When Mr. Disraeli quitted the scenes of his combats and his triumphs, and bade farewell to the electors of Buckingham, he penned a sentence in his election address in which he wrote with his own hand the epitaph which he desired to see upon his political tombstone. He said:—"Not insensible to the principle of progress, I have endeavoured to reconcile change with that respect for tradition which is one of the main

* The official return of the cost of the Indian and Colonial wars from 1875 to 1880 gives the total gross cost of the Afghan War as £24,494,483, of which £5,000,000 was defrayed by the British exchequer. In South Africa, the Transkei War cost £240,137; Zulu War, £4,922,141; Secocoeni Expedition, about £180,000; Griqualand West, £222,200. The loss of life was in Afghanistan; 99 officers and 1524 men killed, and 111 officers and 1252 men wounded; and the total for all the wars in South Africa was 93 officers and 1504 men killed, and 51 officers and 763 men wounded. This does not include the expenditure on the military preparations of 1878, during the Russo-Turkish War.

elements of our social strength; and, in external affairs, I have endeavoured to develop and strengthen our Empire, believing that combination of achievement and responsibility elevates the character and condition of a people."

It was under Lord Beaconsfield that the Jingoism always latent in the English character, and first embodied conspicuously in Lord Palmerston, materialised sufficiently to acquire its distinctive name, and took its place among the recognised political maladies of the world.

When Lord Beaconsfield passed away, it seemed as if for a time he had left no successor. Lord Salisbury, of whom the world had at one time thought better things, succumbed in 1878 to the wiles of the wizard of Hughenden, and by consenting to take the place of Lord Derby on his resignation in the early months of 1878, acquired the reversion of the Conservative leadership. He took part in the famous *pas de deux* at the Berlin Congress, and shared in the responsibility for the subsequent disastrous developments of the Jingo policy in Afghanistan and Africa. When Lord Beaconsfield died, Lord Salisbury became, after Mr. Gladstone, the foremost figure in English politics. So he remains to the present, a solid man, in whom the country has perhaps more confidence than he altogether deserves. In him the sober section of the community believed that they could safely trust. This confidence has been rudely shaken, and in some quarters destroyed, by the painful experience of the last twelve months. The war in South Africa might easily have been averted, if Lord Salisbury had substituted himself for Mr. Chamberlain as the negotiator with President Kruger; but although the Transvaal properly belonged to the province of the Foreign Office, and was only left to the management of the Colonial Secretary by courtesy of the Boers for the sake of administrative convenience, he left matters in the hands of his colleague, little dreaming that the result of his self-abnegation would involve the country in a war expenditure of £100,000,000, and create universal anarchy in South Africa.

For this untoward result we have to thank more than any man, the third Jingo leader who has arisen to plague the country for its sins. "The Gods are just, and of our pleasant vices, make whips to scourge us"; and if Mr. Disraeli was a whip, Mr. Chamberlain is a scorpion. "Who would have thought," remarked a member of the front Opposition bench, the other day, "that anything could ever have made us regret Lord Beaconsfield?" Mr. Chamberlain is indeed a kind of Brummagem Beaconsfield, without any of the oriental charm or mystery which distinguished his prototype. He is brassier, more vulgar, more ignorant, altogether cast in a commoner mould, but the same note characterises all their utterances. They both have the idea that Empires are founded and maintained by the performance of Imperialistic fantasias upon the loudest of brass bands. As a blast on the ram's horn flung down the walls of the city of Jericho, so our Jingoes seem to imagine that the bulwarks of an empire can be reared and maintained by similar performance upon wind instruments. Mr. Chamberlain has the qualities of a sharp, pushing man of business, which Mr. Disraeli lacked. He is incapable of the magnanimity of his predecessor, being much given to the harbouring of personal spite and prejudice. "He never forgives and never forgets," said a great friend of his in the Midland capital. But he has many and great qualities which stand out in vivid contrast with the lack of the same elements in those who surround him. He is a man of infinite energy, great industry, and resolute will, while he has illimitable stock of what his enemies describe as "immoral courage." The nerve which he displayed during the whole of the investigations of the South African Committee, when he had to play the part of the injured innocent, and saw one after another of his fellow conspirators take the stand (any one of whom might have ruined his career by simply blurting out the truth, despite all the efforts made by the Committee of No Inquiry to prevent any disclosure of the incriminating facts), excited the despairing admiration even of those who were most revolted by the spectacle itself. If every nation has the laws which it deserves, it may be said that every nation has the Colonial Secretary which it deserves; and the British nation, which acquiesced with its eyes open in the shameless fraud perpetrated by the South African Committee, has no reason to marvel, although it may have good cause to rejoice in the severity and celerity with which retribution has overtaken it in South Africa. Long after the names of most of the leading actors in this strange and sordid tragedy have perished in oblivion, the memory of Mr. Chamberlain's South African war will stand out in history as a supreme example of retribution in history. Never was so tremendous a sacrifice entailed for so trivial a cause, nor was it hitherto even conceivable that England would be compelled to maintain an army of 200,000 men month after month in South Africa at a cost of £1,250,000 a week, in order to save her South African Empire from the hands of 15,000 undisciplined farmers.

Leaving British statesmen, let us now turn to those sovereigns with whom these statesmen

NICHOLAS I.
1796–1855.

ALEXANDER I.
1777–1825.

ALEXANDER III.
1845–1894.

ALEXANDER II.
1818–1881.

NICHOLAS II.
Born 1868.

TSARS OF RUSSIA.

had to do, and whose character and exploits left an impress upon the memory of our people.

Among those sovereigns the Tsars of Russia stand first. This is the more remarkable, because during the greater part of the Century there has been more or less constant friction between the Russian and English Governments. Nevertheless, not even the suspicion, distrust, and dislike engendered by the active propaganda of the Russo-phobists could blind the British public to the fact that the men who in succession occupied the throne of Russia were each and all men of remarkable force of character, with well-defined personality, each of whom contributed materially to influence the course of English policy.

The Tsar who reigned when the Century began, was in many respects one of its most remarkable men. His name is for ever associated with the heroic act of the burning of Moscow, which, far more than the battle of Waterloo, gave a mortal blow to the French Empire. The part which the Russians under Alexander I. took in destroying the power of Bonaparte made the Tsar a popular idol in England at the beginning of the Century. There was no European sovereign to compare with Alexander I. in popularity with the English crowd. That popularity waned in his later years, when he fell under the influence of Madame de Krüdener, and developed his great scheme of the Holy Alliance in a direction that seemed to antagonise the liberal aspirations of Western Europe. But whether he was banned or whether he was blessed, he stood forth conspicuous before the world—a man of original character, a crowned idealist, who, although the head of the greatest military monarchy in Europe, was consumed by the aspiration to inaugurate a reign of peace, in order to secure for the various governments a breathing-time to execute the reforms required for the welfare of then peoples.

He was succeeded by Nicholas I., a monarch of more decided and resolute character, but who, equally with Alexander I., was at one time popular in England, and at another time detested, but at no time was he a nonentity. For nearly thirty years he dominated Europe, and used his great power systematically in favour of the maintenance of what he considered to be the international law on which the tranquility of Europe depended. He smote the Turk, and liberated Greece at the beginning of his reign; he acted for years as if he were the crowned Chief Justice of Christendom—a conception of his position which led him to intervene in Hungary for the suppression of the insurrection, a measure which cost him his popularity in this country, and led directly to the Crimean War. It was his melancholy fate to be involved in hostilities with a country for whose friendship he had constantly striven. Both in personal communications addressed to the Queen, when he visited this country, and in confidential conversations held with the British Ambassador at St. Petersburg, he always insisted upon the supreme importance of a good understanding between Russia and England, especially for the pacific solution of the Eastern Question.*

The perversity of Turkey, the ambition of Napoleon, and the passion of the English populace, swept us into war with the monarch with whom it was our interest and our duty to have remained at peace. Over that melancholy period of foolish passion, when, in Lord Salisbury's famous words, "We backed the wrong horse," it is well to pass, to contemplate the sovereign who, on the whole, occupies the noblest pedestal in the history of the Century. Alexander II., the Emancipator of the Serfs, the Liberator of Bulgaria, was a man much milder in disposition than his father Nicolas; but on the whole he has traced his name in deeper

* Sir Hamilton Seymour, meeting the Emperor of Russia in the Palace of the Archduchess Helen (January 9th, 1853), is engaged in a conversation by his Majesty, which proves the first of a series of confidential communications on the affairs of Turkey. . . . These affairs (the Emperor said to our Ambassador), were "in a very disorganised condition; the country itself seems to be falling to pieces. The fall will be a very great misfortune; and it is very important that England and Russia should come to a perfectly good understanding upon these affairs, and that neither should take any decisive step of which the other is not apprised." On February 21st, the Emperor said: "I repeat to you that the sick man is dying, and we can never allow such an event to take us by surprise. We must come to some understanding." On February 22nd, the Emperor said: "There are several things which I will never tolerate. I will begin with ourselves. I will not tolerate the permanent occupation of Constantinople by the Russians. Having said this, I will say that it never shall be held by the English or French, or any other great nation. Again, I never will permit an attempt at the reconstruction of the Byzantine empire, or such an extension of Greece as would render her a powerful state; still less will I permit the breaking up of Turkey into little republics—asylums of the Kossuths and Mazzinis, and other revolutionists of Europe. Rather than submit to any of these arrangements, I would go to war, and, as long as I have a man and a musket left, would carry it on. . . . The Principalities," he said, "are in fact an independent state, under my protection: this might so continue. Servia might receive the same form of Government. So again with Bulgaria. There seems to be no reason why this province should not form an independent state. As to Egypt, I quite understand the importance to England of that territory. I can, then, only say that if, in the event of a distribution of the Ottoman succession upon the fall of the empire, you should take possession of Egypt, I shall have no objection to offer. I would say the same thing of Candia; that island might suit you, and I do not know why it should not become an English possession."—*Annals of the Times.*

characters upon the history of Europe, and of the world. In Whittier's grandiloquent phrase,

> "He with a pencil of the Northern Star,
> Wrote freedom o'er his land."

The emancipation achieved by President Lincoln as a military measure was a bagatelle compared with the immense act of liberation accomplished by Alexander II. in a time of profound peace. Not that his reign was unstained with blood. He succeeded to his burdensome inheritance when the old *régime*, shattered by the thunderbolt of the Crimean War, was falling to pieces on every hand. He had to reconstitute the government of Russia upon a more Liberal foundation. The first check given to the Liberal movement was the unfortunate insurrection of Poland in 1863, which, like all abortive insurrections, tended to aggravate the evil which it was intended to cure. The Tsar, however, persevered. Repelled from the Danube, he leant in the direction of Central Asia, and succeeded in extending the civilising sovereignty of a Christian Power over the barbarous slave-trading Khanates of Central Asia.* His support enabled Germany to realise her national aspirations, and in return he succeeded in liberating his country from the humiliating limitation placed upon her naval use of the Black Sea. Loving peace, and hating war, he was driven sorely against his will, by the explosion of popular passion occasioned by the Bulgarian atrocities and the Turkish invasion of Servia, to intervene single-handed between the Sultan and his victims. Reluctantly compelled to unsheathe the sword, he did not return it to its scabbard until he had liberated Bulgaria from the Danube to the Ægean, and had exacted from the prostrate Ottoman, guarantees for the good government of Armenia and the remaining provinces of Europe. That this emancipatory work was marred by the meddlesome intervention of Lord Beaconsfield and Austria was not the fault of Alexander II. It was impossible for him to fight a European coalition at the close of the exhausting campaign against Turkey, so it was necessary to hand back Macedonia to the Turk, and to substitute for the direct obligation into which Turkey had entered with Russia to protect the Armenians, a vague clause which made it everybody's business, and, as the result proved, nobody's.

The latter years of his reign were in melancholy contrast to the brilliance of its zenith. Popular discontent led to the outbreak of Nihilism which, being repressed with severity, exploded in dynamite. After the assassination of many of his officials, the Tsar himself, Liberator, Emancipator and Reformer though he was, was blown to pieces by a bomb in the streets of his own capital.

He was succeeded by Alexander III., a monarch who, without any claim to wide culture, and without any liberal or progressive aspirations, nevertheless won for himself the gratitude of the world by the steadiness of purpose with which he fulfilled his self-appointed mission of Peace-keeper of Europe. His early death was everywhere lamented as a disaster, and nowhere more sincerely than in Great Britain.

His successor, the present Tsar, is still a young man at the threshold of his reign, but as the author of the Peace Conference he has won for himself a brilliant position in the modern Pantheon. How universal was the respect, esteem and confidence entertained by the world for the character of Nicholas II., was not quite realised until his recent illness threatened the world with the calamity of his premature departure from the European stage, on which his influence is recognised everywhere as one exercised for good and only for good.

The kings of Prussia, down to William I., under whom Bismarck unified Germany, did not succeed in impressing the British public. The heroic and pathetic figure of the Queen Marie Louise seems to belong to the Eighteenth Century, although the tragedy of Jena was well within the present century. William I. was respected as an honest man, but he was overshadowed by Bismarck. Frederick, his son, was universally esteemed, and if his life had been but prolonged, he might have done something to perpetuate the liberal and humane traditions of cultured Germany. Unfortunately he was hurried hence before he could be crowned, and his place was taken by the present Kaiser, who, whatever his faults, has undoubtedly dashed with a mailed fist an indelible impression of himself upon the public mind. Never in our time have we had so picturesque, so dashing, so sensational a Sovereign on a European throne. The blend of English and German blood seems to have produced a creature of feverish energy and boundless ambition, who, being gifted with a certain sonorous eloquence

* Note for instance this fact. On 24th June, 1873, the Khan of Khiva issued a proclamation abolishing slavery: "Penetrated by veneration for the Emperor of Russia, I declare all slaves in the empire of Khiva to be free, and the slave trade abolished for ever. I command the immediate execution of this order, and severe punishment will be inflicted in case of refusal. All liberated slaves enjoy equal rights with my other subjects, and are permitted to remain in the Khanate. Should they wish to return to their native country, special measures will be taken. The liberated slaves are to assemble at the nearest market towns, and to present themselves to the authorities, who will inscribe their names on lists, and inform the Khan of the number of liberated slaves."

FREDERICK WILLIAM III.
KING OF PRUSSIA.
1770–1840.

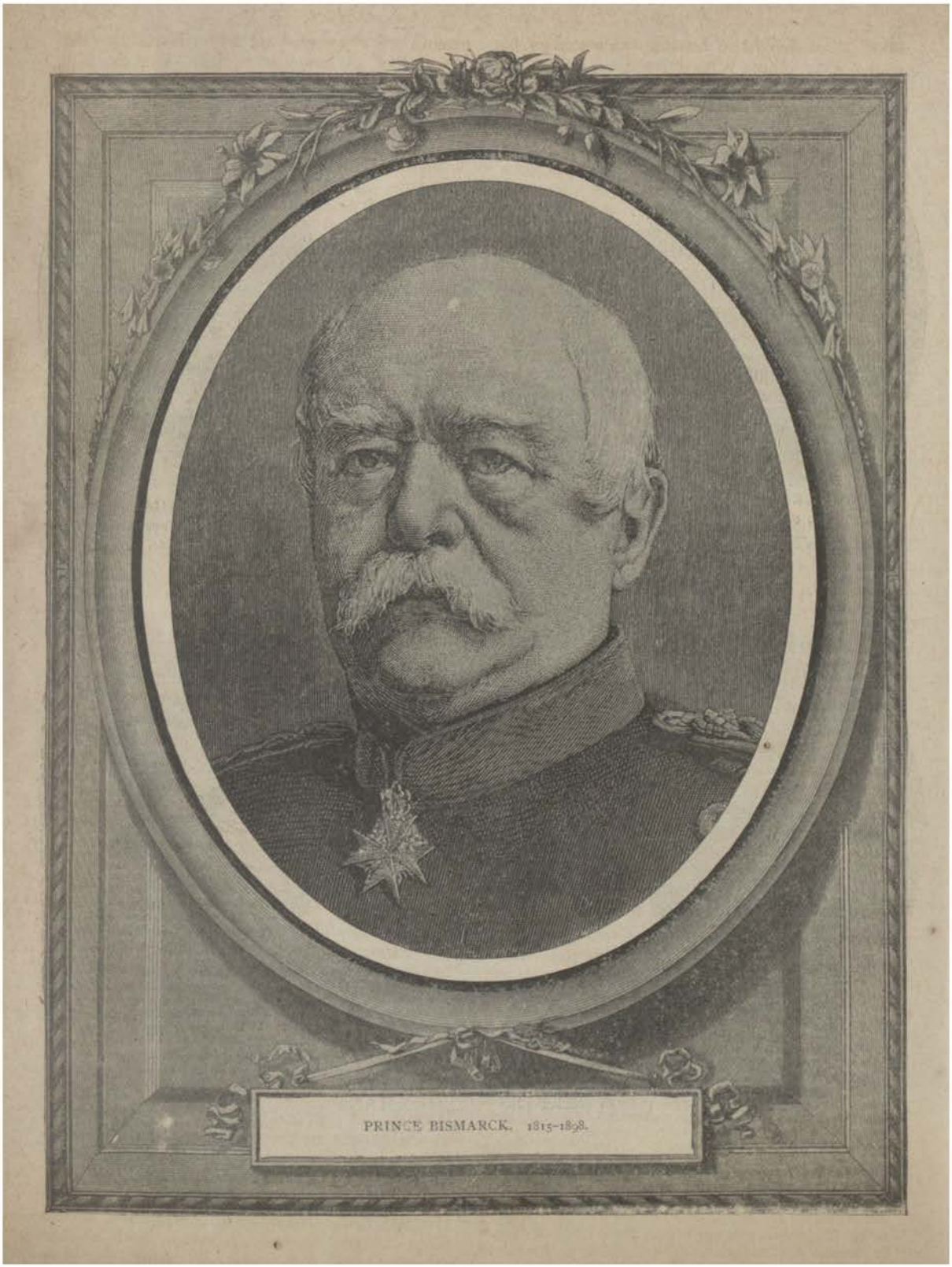
FREDERICK WILLIAM IV.
KING OF PRUSSIA.
1795–1861.

WILLIAM I.
GERMAN EMPEROR.
1797–1888.

FREDERICK III.
GERMAN EMPEROR.
1831–1888.

WILLIAM II.
GERMAN EMPEROR.
BORN 1859.

SOVEREIGNS OF GERMANY.



PRINCE BISMARCK. 1815-1898.

takes great delight in hearing the sound of his own voice. There is no department of state in which he does not interest himself actively, nor is it only in affairs of State that he displays his anxiety to be in everything and to do everything. "He is like a young dog," said Bismarck contemptuously. "He paws at everything." But Bismarck was bitter in those days, and resented his supersession by his young master. William II. acquired the soubriquet of the Shouting Emperor soon after his accession, when the unrestrained vehemence of his oratory somewhat scared the sedate diplomats of Europe. On his first visit to this country after his accession, nothing could have been better than the way in which he spoke concerning his devotion to peace and his anxious desire for a good understanding with England.* It was, therefore, with a somewhat cruel shock that the British public read his famous telegram to President Kruger after the fiasco of the Jameson Raid:—

"I express my sincere congratulations that, supported by your people and without appealing for the help of friendly powers, you have succeeded by your own energetic action against armed bands which invaded your country as disturbers of the peace and have thus been enabled to restore peace and safeguard the independence of the country against attacks from outside."

Opinion is still divided as to whether the Emperor meant anything by it, or whether it was only one of the telegraphic leaderettes which he emits on all occasions that seem to him to call for inditing an Imperial Editorial. If he at any time seriously meditated including the Transvaal in the German sphere of influence, that telegram was the epitaph inscribed by History over the grave of his design. For two or three years he remained in the black books of Britain, nor did he improve his position by his famous pilgrimage to Jerusalem *viâ* Constantinople, in which, fresh from clasping the bloody hand of Abdul the Damned, he went to pray at the sepulchre of the Prince of Peace.

After his return from the Holy Land, however, the exigencies of our foreign South African policy drove the English Government into his arms for it often happens that Pilate finds ground of *rapprochement* with Herod in the sacrifice of an innocent victim. That he is a man of genius no one denies, but he is somewhat given to printing his editorials in capitals and to painting his pictures with the most glaring red and yellow. Surely never did crowned head in modern times let himself go with such a vengeance as our Kaiser Wilhelm. Take, for instance, his famous discourse to his troops quite early in the reign:—

On December 2, 1891, the Emperor addressed the recruits of the 1st Regiment of Foot Guards, as follows:—

"Recruits, you have, in the presence of the consecrated servants of God and before the altar sworn fealty to me. You are still too young to understand the meaning of the words which you have just spoken, but be diligent in following the directions and the teaching you will receive. You have, my children, sworn fealty to me, which means that you have given yourselves to me body and soul. There exists for you only one enemy, and that is my enemy. With the present Socialist agitation it may possibly happen that I may have to order you, which God forbid, to shoot down your own relatives, your brothers, and even your parents, but if I do so you must obey without a murmur."

This called forth much comment, as also had, not long before, the inscription by the young Emperor in a visitor's book, of the words, *Regis voluntas suprema lex.*

Even this was thrown into the shade by his latest escapade, when, on hearing the news of the death of his ambassador in the streets of Pekin, he cried aloud for vengeance, and exhorted the German soldiers to give no quarter, but to emulate the exploits of the Huns of Attila.

Among the secondary royal personages who are realised as individuals in this country, Leopold, king of the Belgians, ranks first, owing to the closeness of the tie which connects him with the Queen. Louis Philippe, the citizen king, was also fairly visible from the meridian of Greenwich. Victor Emmanuel in later times was watched with the interest naturally commanded by a royal adventurer, who climbs with steady head to the topmost rung of the ladder of his ambition.

Several Oriental potentates visited London, but neither Abdul Aziz nor the Shah was more than the lion of a season. Beyond that they left no impress upon the popular mind. Abdul Hamid, the present Sultan, who succeeded to the throne in the midst of the throes of a crisis which threatened the extinction of the Ottoman Empire, has survived for twenty-five years. That in itself was no small achievement. He has made friends with the Infidel in the shape of the German Emperor, and he has achieved the distinction of being the first

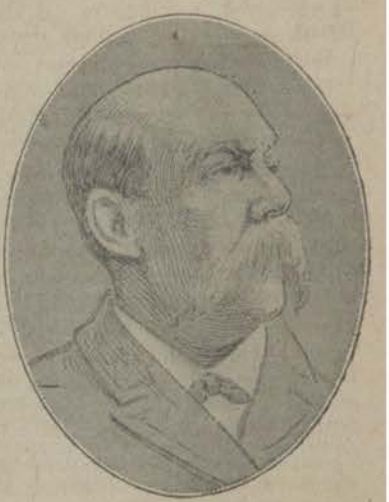
* July 4th, 1891, "The same blood runs in English and German veins. Following the example of my grandfather and my ever-lamented father, I shall always, as far as it is in my power, maintain the historical friendship between these our two nations, which, as your Lordship mentioned, have so often been seen side by side in defence of liberty and justice. . . . My aim is above all the maintenance of peace. For peace alone can give the confidence which is necessary to the healthy development of science, of art, and of trade. Only so long as peace reigns, we are at liberty to bestow our earnest thoughts upon the great problems, the solution of which, in fairness and equity, I consider the most prominent duty of our time."

DANIEL WEBSTER.
AMERICAN STATESMAN.
1782–1852.

WENDELL PHILLIPS.
AMERICAN STATESMAN.
1811–1884.

JOHN BRIGHT.
ENGLISH STATESMAN.
1811–1889.

ALPHONSE M. L. DE LAMARTINE.
FRENCH AUTHOR AND STATESMAN.
1790–1869.



EMILIO CASTELAR.
SPANISH STATESMAN.
1832–1899.

FAMOUS ORATORS.

Oriental, who for fifty years has dared to defy Europe and compel a divided and powerless Christendom to watch in helpless impotence the massacre of the Armenians. Much fierce denunciation has been directed against Abdul Hamid which, in the closing days of the Century, seems somewhat out of place in the mouths of those who are responsible for the devastation of the Transvaal and the sack of Pekin.

The only other sovereign in Europe who is a living entity to the English people is the Emperor Francis Joseph. He has never been in London, and he is more of a name than a personality; but he is a kind of European Caryatid, upon whose bowed shoulders rest the undivided weight of the heterogeneous and polyglot aggregation of nationalities which is marked on the map as Austria-Hungary. He has been on the throne for half a century. He has been through three wars and been worsted in every one, and yet the Emperor's dominions are hardly less wide than they were when he came to the throne, for what he lost in Italy he has gained in the Balkans; and his people are more prosperous than ever. Under him has been accomplished the gradual transformation of Austria-Hungary. Mr. Gladstone in a splenetic moment declared that nowhere on the map could we put our finger and say that Austria had done good; but Austria, although she may not have done good to many people in Mr. Gladstone's sense, has by her mere existence done good service to the European equilibrium. If Austria had not existed, it would have been necessary to have invented her; but as she was invented and in existence, all that needed to be done was to keep her from flying to pieces. Apart altogether from his functions as a political factor, the tragic fortunes of his family have excited a kindly human interest in every heart. The death of his beautiful Empress by the hand of the assassin, the death of his son and heir by his own hand, are sufficient to touch with pity the hardest heart, for the humblest man that lives, no matter how ignorant he may be in the cares of statecraft, can appreciate the feelings of a father when his only son dies by his own hand, and his wife perishes by the sudden blow of a fanatical assassin.

So much for the Sovereigns of Europe. The statesmen who served them or who figure in the annals of contemporary France form a very distinguished group. Towering conspicuous above them all, a Titan and a Colossus in one, stands Prince Bismarck. No living man in our time has left the impress of his personality so clearly cut on the popular memory. He was practically unknown outside diplomatic circles until the middle sixties. Then, when he emerged into public notice, it was as the possible Strafford of a Prussian Charles Stuart. The success of Prussian arms in the war with Austria made him the most prominent figure in Europe after Napoleon, and the victory of Germany over France made him the most conspicuous statesman in the world, bar none. Although he has been dead for some years now, we still seem to live under the shadow of his masterful personality. Whether that man of blood and iron did not in many ways arrest the moral development of the world is a moot point, upon which men differ. Sir Robert Morier's phrase, "He made Germany great, but the German small," has more truth in it than might appear at first sight. *Au fond* he was a man not without deep religious convictions and a strong moral sense of his own, but his moral sense, like Mr. Gladstone's conscience, was fearfully and wonderfully made. He was a man of clear vision, who saw the goal before him, and strode to it regardless of obstacles. He was very imperious, and there was in him a certain impatient scorn of weaklings which was sometimes hard to bear. He served his King and his fatherland faithfully, according to his own judgment, and, although his career may seem to some to be stained with many crimes, he has received an ample absolution from his countrymen, who profited by his misdeeds. That it is good for man or nation to profit by evil doing is a matter upon which moralists have much to say, and the question, how far it is right to do evil that good may come, is one of those problems upon which casuists may debate for ever, without arriving at any but the commonplace conclusion—that it all depends upon circumstances.

A kind of lesser Bismarck, and in some respects a more finely tempered one, was Count Cavour, who did for Italy what Bismarck did for Germany. The two men were fairly typical of their respective countries. The Prussian Junker, high-handed, somewhat of a bully, arrogant and impatient, forced his way with violence to his destined goal. Cavour, an Italian, astute, full of *finesse* and intrigue, achieved his end by a far different method. The doctrine that the end justifies the means must be invoked frequently to justify many episodes in Cavour's career. His relations with revolutionary Italy necessitated an amount of dissimulation which passed without censure on the part of the English public, which sympathised too much with the liberation of Italy to be particularly careful as to the methods by which it was brought about.

After Bismarck and Cavour, no modern statesman bulked quite so largely before the eyes of this generation as Gambetta. M. Thiers

LÉON GAMBETTA. 1838-1882.

had behind him a long and illustrious past, before he became the Liberator of French territory and the first President of the Third Republic; but M. Thiers never impressed the English imagination as did Gambetta. There was in Gambetta a certain element of passion which appeals to the imagination of men. Like Carlyle's famous Hindoo, who had enough fire in his belly to burn up the world, Gambetta was well furnished in his inward parts with the central fire. Circumstances, no doubt, had everything to do with the impression which he produced upon the popular imagination. It was he who, in the terrible year when the Imperial legions went down before the impact of the German armies, first overturned the moribund Empire, and then refused to despair of the Republic. The levy *en masse* of the manhood of France was a forlorn hope, foredoomed to failure from the first. Its failure or success did not affect the popular judgment as to Gambetta's energy, his enthusiasm, and the irresistible influence of his oratory. He became for a time the incarnation of France, and no one can incarnate a nation in a supreme moment without being more or less glorified ever afterwards. He became visible to all the world as the Frenchman of the moment, one of those fateful moments which decide the destiny of nations. His subsequent career hardly justified the hopes and expectations roused by the energy which he displayed at the supreme hour of national agony. But, although he failed to carry the nation with him in his foreign policy, so that England was left to embark alone upon the Egyptian adventure, he remained till his death the most influential, the most typical, the most eloquent of Frenchmen. In his later years he was no longer the "*fou furieux*," as he was dubbed by M. Thiers in his early days, and developed a good deal of statesmanlike common sense. Had his life been spared, he might have redeemed the French Republic from the reproach of having produced no administrator or statesman of the first class. But that was not to be, and the French Republic which he founded has long since emancipated herself from the bondage of the Gambettist tradition.

Of the other French statesmen of the century, M. de Tocqueville and M. Guizot are still remembered, but more by their books than by their statesmanship. De Tocqueville's account of democracy in America remained a standard work on the subject for the lifetime of a generation. M. Guizot's fair fame was badly blurred by the part which he took in his Spanish marriages. Of the statesmen of the Empire, if they may be so called, three names alone survive. De Morny, like Siegfried, stood behind the king and supplied him with the strength necessary to effect his purpose. In later years M. Rouher and M. Emile Ollivier were names associated with the closing days of the Second Empire. Ollivier lives in history chiefly, if not solely, because of his famous phrase that "he went to war with a light heart." * He came out of it with a heavy one, but it is doubtful whether, even had he taken a more serious view of the situation, he would have been able to have arrested France upon the brink of her doom.

In modern Italy, Crispi, a kind of bastard Bismarck, a man of energy and ambition, bulked in the early years of the Triple Alliance conspicuously before Europe; but the disaster which attended the Abyssinian adventure to which he had committed his country, together with financial scandals, brought upon him the same eclipse which the fates seem preparing for Mr. Chamberlain.

Midhat Pasha, the Turk who was responsible for the brilliant improvisation of Turkish Parliament, at the moment when Europe was demanding from the Sultan elementary guarantees for the life and property of his Christian subjects, swept for one moment like a bright meteor across the sky, only to be quenched almost immediately in thick darkness. Russian statesmen are but little known outside their Empire, with the exception of the Ministers for Foreign Affairs. Nesselrode, Gortschakoff, Giers, Lobanoff, Mouravieff, and Lamsdorf, are all names familiar enough to the newspaper reader, but with the exception of Gortschakoff and possibly Nesselrode, they are little more than names to the British public. Gortschakoff was witty, skilful and capable. His famous phrase uttered after the Crimean War, "La Russie ne bouge pas, mais elle se recueille," had a great vogue for many years; but it is now almost forgotten. He was a man who lingered superfluous on the stage long after it would have been better for him to have retired. Running over this rapid muster-roll of European statesmen, I have omitted to name several, each of whom in his way was more distinguished than any of those who have been mentioned. The first was Stein, the Prussian statesman, who, after the catastrophe of Jena, took in hand and carried through with scientific thoroughness the regeneration of

* M. Emile Ollivier only seven months before he "went to war with a light heart" wrote to a correspondent (Jan. 19th, 1870): "Now in Italy, Prussia, Austria, and Bavaria, in every tongue and according to all rites, prayers are offered up to the god of battles supplicating hecatombs of human beings. We do not join our voice to those which blaspheme. We do not believe in the god of battles. We believe in a God of justice and peace, in a God who holds in His hands the hearts of princes and of nations, and who bends them as He wills; we ask Him to keep the chief in whose hands our destinies are placed from precipitate resolutions and unjust designs."

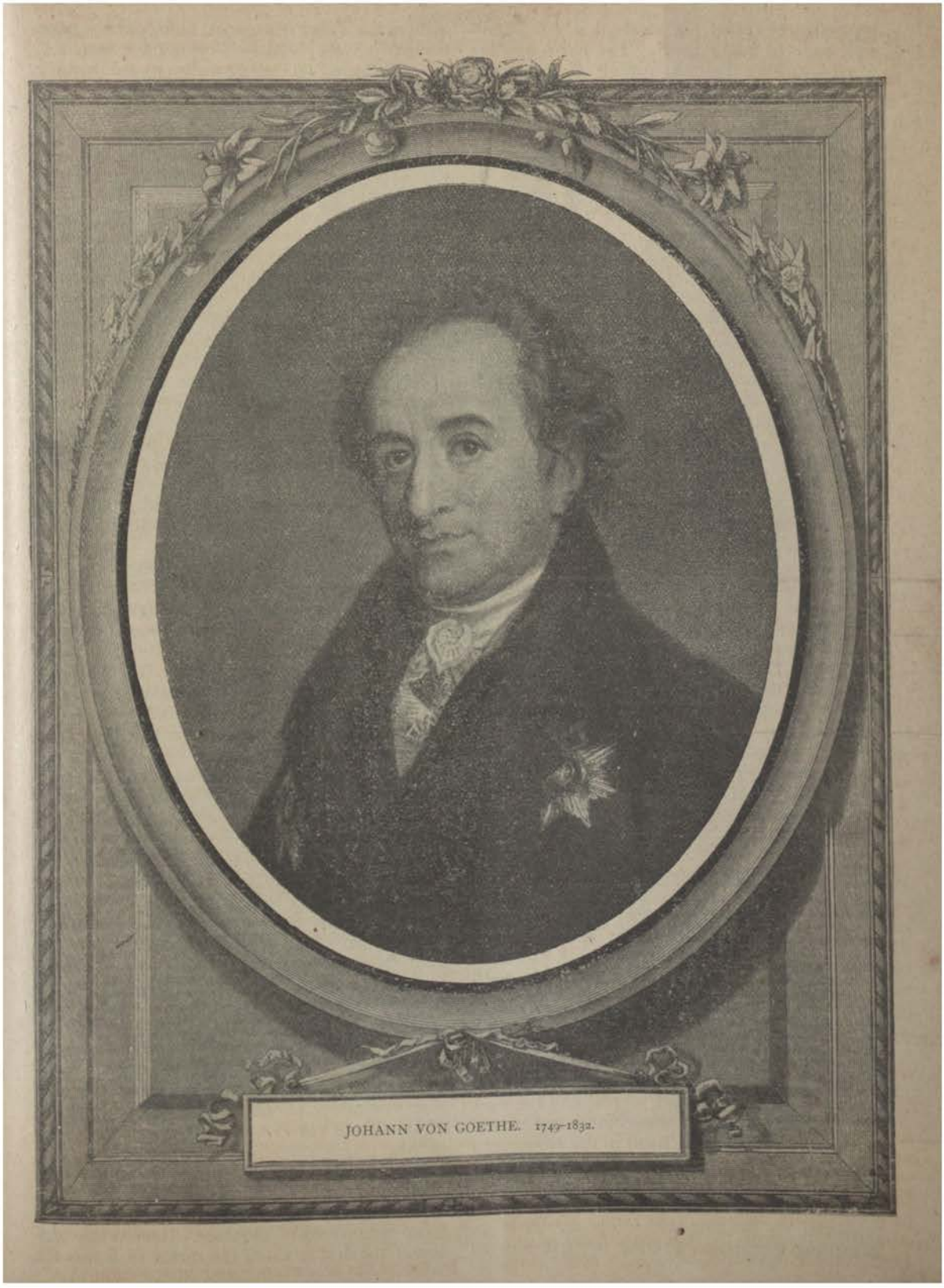
Prussia. What dazzled the imagination about Stein is the extraordinary achievements which he accomplished in one year of office. He was minister, it is true, from 1804–7, but he was not in power till 1807. Prussia lay prostrate at the feet of Napoleon. Stein himself held office by permission of the Emperor, who was just twelve months in discovering what a mistake he had made in approving of the appointment of so able and dangerous a foe. Hence Stein's period of power lasted just one year. But in that year he revolutionised Prussia, remodelled her constitution, and laid down the lines on which she was hereafter to evolve her destinies. His reward was exile. But his one year's work, when he and Scharnhorst undertook the regeneration of their Fatherland, saved Prussia; and it is due to him, even more than to Bismarck, that the twentieth century finds Europe leading the world, Germany leading Europe, and Prussia leading Germany. A great year's work, indeed! The other was Francis Deak, the Liberal statesman, whose glory it was to realise the ideals of Kossuth, by establishing on a firm foundation the constitutional liberties of the kingdom of Hungary. It is not often that a man who has been condemned to death for attempting to serve his country by way of revolution, is afterwards summoned to the first place in the councils of his Sovereign, and entrusted with the task of carrying out by law the beneficent changes which he had failed to effect by more violent methods.

We turn with a certain sigh of relief from these makers and unmakers of kingdoms and empires, to monarchs who wield a sceptre over vast realms, potent even over death. Pre-eminent stands Goethe in European literature, though in England he never became popular, despite the efforts of George Henry Lewes. But his name is known to millions, who have never even read Faust. He was not a lovable man, yet his influence remains superior to that of any man of letters of his time. This is also true of England, although here he was nothing like so popular as Schiller, His influence as a philosopher and man of science as well as a poet is far greater.

After him comes our own Sir Walter, who, whether as poet, novelist, and man, is still a living force throughout the whole English-speaking world. Walter Scott was a historian, and also a lawyer; but neither as historian nor as lawyer would he be remembered to-day, whereas his romances in prose and verse have brightened the life and elevated the sentiments of untold millions. His genius has made Abbotsford one of the pilgrim-shrines of the English-speaking world. No man wrote more voluminously perhaps, but he never wrote a line which on his deathbed he would have cared to blot. It is his glory to have founded the modern novel, a form of literature which has superseded all others as a vehicle both for popular amusement and popular instruction. The broad genial humanity of Scott, his fine chivalrous nature, his intense sympathy with all the sorrows and joys of man and woman, qualified him pre-eminently for the great *rôle* which he has played in modern letters. We can never over-estimate the debt which we owe him for the service which he rendered to the race by introducing it to a new world. Jeanie Deans is infinitely more real to the majority of men and women to-day than most of the historical personages who in their day played great parts in the affairs of their own time. What is true of Jeanie Deans is true more or less of most of his characters. They are living, human souls, whose experiences widen the range of our sympathies, and give us deeper insight into the human heart.

The third great name in the literature of the century comes to us from across the Channel. Victor Hugo, in France, is much more esteemed as a poet than as a novelist; but French poetry is difficult to translate, the charm vanishes when that French wine is drunk out of an English cup. To the English-speaking world, which after all is an infinitely wider public than that which Victor Hugo's verse has ever been able to command, he is chiefly famous as a novelist. "Les Misérables" is one of those books which have contributed mightily to the humanising of mankind. And what is true of "Les Misérables" is more or less true of every novel which Victor Hugo wrote. He was the prose poet of the Outcast. Whether it is in "Notre Dame" where he compels our sympathy for Quasimodo, cursed from his birth by the hideous and unshapely body he was doomed to carry through life, or in "L'Homme qui rit," where the hero, disinherited, is compelled to be the cruel sport of his fellowmen and to wear through life the mask of a perpetual grin, we always see the man under the mask. He was a great prophet of the essential divinity of man. In his "Toilers of the Sea," in Gilliat's famous struggle with the devil-fish, we have the same kind of object-lesson of the truth which is embodied in most of his stories. He presents us with Man almost powerless in the grasp of adverse destiny, struggling with tremendous odds, but ultimately achieving some measure of success. His novels are a veritable gospel of the essential indestructibility of the divine spark which dwells in the poorest, the weakest, the vilest of mankind.

In the realm of romance and imagination so



JOHANN VON GOETHE. 1749-1832.

many figures crowd the scene, that it is impossible even to name them. The novel and the newspaper form the only reading of the masses. They have opened a new world to the majority of the human race. Fiction, which fifty years ago was regarded by many serious persons in England as forbidden ground, is now common to all, nor can it be denied that, on the whole, the influence of the novel has made for righteousness. This may seem a strong thing to say in face of all the literature of Sodom which has appeared, and which does small credit to the human race. But the good have survived and the bad have perished. After a hundred years there is probably not a village, not a hamlet in the whole English-speaking world, into which some of Scott's novels have not penetrated. It will be interesting to see whether at the end of next century the novels of D'Annunzio, whose genius is chiefly devoted to the portrayal of passion, will be known to any but the students of the literary history of the Nineteenth Century.

Novelists may be said to have created a literature of the Century which is entirely their own, so multifarious and diversified that it is almost impossible to classify it or to do more than allude in passing to leading representatives of various schools. We might construct a Bible from the novels of the century, and find a work of fiction embodying a distinctive characteristic of almost every book in the Old or New Testament. Novelists have their Leviticus, they have their historical books, they have their prophecies, they have their epistles, they have their Apocalypse. Some novelists are novelists pure and simple, holding the mirror up to nature, painting and interpreting the world which they see around them. Of these Thackeray in England and Balzac in France may be said to stand at the head of their profession. Balzac has never been popular in England, nor Thackeray in France; but each in his own country is *facile princeps*. Thackeray the man is little known, even to the multitude of those who read his novels; but Thackeray the creator of "Becky Sharp" and "Colonel Newcome," is regarded with affection and gratitude by millions.

Of a very different type are the novelists who write with a purpose. They are, perhaps, not so much novelists with a purpose as men with a purpose who become novelists, finding the novel the most effective method of reaching the men of their generation. Thomas Binney used to say that if the Apostle Paul lived in the Nineteenth Century, he would have edited the *Times* newspaper, in which case we should have had a very different kind of newspaper from that which is produced at Printing-house Square. It is an interesting speculation whether in preference to editing the *Times* newspaper, he would not have written novels. Count Tolstoy, for instance, who is a moral teacher as strenuous and earnest as the Apostle Paul himself, has found the novel the most effective instrument for disseminating his views among the people. For every one who has read his "My Confession," or "Life," or his treatise on Art, there are hundreds who are familiar with "Anna Karenina," "The Kreutzer Sonata," or "Resurrection." Of the novelists with a purpose, who not only had a purpose but achieved it, Mrs. Stowe may be regarded as occupying the first place, with "Uncle Tom's Cabin." Other novels may have achieved as great a circulation in the later years of the century, but no novel, at the time when "Uncle Tom's Cabin" appeared, ever sprang so instantaneously into such immense popularity, or affected so immediately and powerfully the sentiment of mankind. It remains to this day in lonely eminence, the unapproached ideal of nearly every reformer who, casting about for some means to get his message home to the hearts and consciences of mankind, thinks with despairing envy and admiration of Mrs. Beecher Stowe.

Dickens, humourist and romancer, was also one of the most successful of the novelists with a purpose. No novelist in England to-day, has anything approaching to the vogue attained by Dickens in his prime. Whether his novels will live is another matter; but for their day and generation they commanded universal attention, and achieved no small measure of success in removing the abuses to which they called attention.

The only novelist of the present time who commands the same kind of public, and who is also a novelist with a most strenuous purpose, is Emile Zola, whose fecundity is as marvellous as his industry. But Zola is more than a novelist with a purpose. He has his gospel to preach, which he preaches, but he is also a painter, on a gigantic canvas, of life as he sees it. He is the journalist-novelist. Some of his later books are monuments of successful industry and intimate study of modern problems. His picture of Rome, whether regarded from the point of view of the Vatican or from that of the Quirinal, is a marvel of close study and of brilliantly accurate description. Only those who have been over the same ground can appreciate the immeasurable superiority of Zola's picture of Rome to Marie Corelli's daub or Mrs. Humphrey Ward's etching.

Among the contributors to the voluminous library of modern fiction, women have taken a more prominent place than in almost any other department of literature. Jane Austen was one of the first to claim the realm of fiction for

LEO NIKOLAIEVITCH TOLSTOY.
(RUSSIAN.)
BORN 1828.

HONORE DE BALZAC. (FRENCH.)
1799–1850.

GEORGES SAND. (FRENCH.)
1804–1876.

VICTOR HUGO. (FRENCH.)
1802–1885.

ALEXANDER DUMAS. (FRENCH.)
1803–1870.

EMILE ZOLA. (FRENCH.)
BORN 1840.

FOREIGN NOVELISTS.

CHARLES DICKENS.
1812–1870.

GEORGE ELIOT.
1819–1880.

CHARLOTTE BRONTE.
1816–1855.

WILLIAM MAKEPEACE THACKERAY.
1811–1863.

EDWARD BULWER, LORD LYTTON.
1805–1873.

HARRIET BEECHER-STOWE.
1811–1896.

R. L. STEVENSON.
1850–1894.

FAMOUS NOVELISTS.

her sex, and since her time women novelists have increased and multiplied until they are now as innumerable as the sands upon the seashore. Of the women novelists of France, Georges Sand was a personality as well as a novelist, and so in very different style was our own George Eliot, who probably incorporated as much philosophy and morality in fiction as that vehicle would safely carry. The Brontës were much more vivid personalities than George Eliot, and this affords a striking illustration of the fact that the personality of novelists is much more to be found in their works than in their individual entities. No one could have been much more shrinking or retiring than the shy little governess who wrote "Jane Eyre," but she lives in the imaginations of multitudes to whom George Eliot is but a pale abstraction.

But not even the most cursory survey of the fiction of the Nineteenth Century can be written without paying homage to the genius of Dumas; To-day perhaps even more than Scott, he is the great magician who has opened to mankind the world of historical romance. His history, however, is not his charm, but his romance. Not by his picture of Richelieu, but by his creation of the immortal D'Artagnan, has he enriched the life of millions; and his pages have acted, and are acting to this day, and will act for years to come as a kind of Solomon's Carpet for wafting his readers to an unknown enchanted world.

From novelists the transition is slight to the Poets. The Nineteenth Century has been at certain periods a veritable nest of singing birds, and all the more famous have left the impression of a distinct personality, not only in their works but in their lives. Wordsworth, the Lake poet *par excellence*, is more potent as a living influence to-day than he was when he dwelt at Rydal Mount. When we think of him, it is as a man in harmonious sympathy and affectionate communion with that nature of which he was the sacred bard. In violent contrast to the philosophic lover of the mountain and lake was Byron, the poet of passion and of revolution. In his verse you feel the heart-beat of the revolutionary passion, the enthusiasm for liberty, which not even the blood-bath of war has been able to extinguish. Like to him, yet unlike, stands his contemporary Shelley, a kind of half-fallen angel, to whom the music of the spheres was ever audible, and who saw the latent beauty concealed beneath the surface of all mortal things. He also was a poet of revolution, and when storm days arise, you may still hear his verses declaimed by the orators of Trafalgar Square.

In the latter half of the century, Tennyson and the Brownings reigned supreme. Tennyson, both as man and poet, was one of the most conspicuous figures in the second half of the Nineteenth Century. Browning's verse was more virile, and his wife's "Aurora Leigh" more distinctly dynamic than anything Tennyson wrote; but they never impressed the middle-class mind of England as did either "In Memoriam" or the "Idylls of the King." Nor was it only the middle-class mind which Tennyson reached. It was noted as a curious fact, that in a doss-house in America, into which a Socialist investigator penetrated, the only poem of which those assembled had any knowledge was the "Charge of the Light Brigade."

Of the American poets, the two who have had by far the greatest influence in England were Longfellow and Lowell. Whitman's somewhat uncouth but genuine poetry has found many admirers; but if the English-speaking world were polled to-day, it would probably be found that a hundred persons had read Longfellow for one who had read either Tennyson or Whitman. Yet Longfellow can hardly be regarded as a personality, and thus was very different from Lowell, who was poet, diplomatist, and man of letters all in one. Lowell's influence in England is much greater than it ever was in America, where the restrictions of copyright render his works practically inaccesible to the million. In England he is more quoted, both in the pulpit and on the platform, than any other poet. He has crystallised into verse all the social and religious aspirations of his time, and has popularised better than any Nineteenth Century writer what may be roughly described as the Broad-Church view of Christianity.

The Nineteenth Century is the Century of Science, and no figure is more conspicuous among the scientific men to whom it has given birth—among Englishmen, at least—than Charles Darwin. It seems only the other day that Darwin used to be spoken of with horror and regret. We are all Darwinians to-day, though even now the millions have never read his books. He would be the last man to claim anything like pre-eminence. But, unlike many scientific men, he had a great gift of lucid exposition; and he is now the popular type of the ideal man of science, singularly free from the dogmatism and obscurity which characterise some scientists of our time. In France, and not in France alone, Pasteur is a name held in profound respect, though convinced anti-vivisectionists hold his name in horror. The two names, Darwin and Pasteur, are nevertheless those which would occur instinctively to the mind of the average man, if he were asked to name the two best known scientists of the time.

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.
1819–1891.

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.
1807–1882.

LORD BYRON.
1788–1824.

ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON.
1809–1892.

SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE.
1772–1834.

PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY.
1792–1822.

POETS—I.

Both represented patient, unremitting, conscientious search for truth, which they interpreted in their own way. They sought for the secret of weaving, as it were, the mysteries of the universe into the web by which men see God. And—

> Thus at the roaring loom of time I ply,
> And weave for God the garment thou seest Him by.

From scientists like Darwin and Pasteur, the transition is not difficult to the Vulcans of the modern world. From the days when men first learned the mystery of smelting iron from ore, down to the end of the Eighteenth Century, comparatively little progress has been made in the arts of metallurgy, or in the use and application of iron and steel. This century of Vulcan has learnt the mysteries of the laboratory, and, calling steam to his aid, made good his claim to a permanent place on the modern Olympus. Yet it can hardly be said that any of our great iron kings are personalities. Their names—Nasmyth, of the Nasmyth hammer; Bessemer, Siemens, Krupp, Armstrong, Schneider—are names as familiar in our mouths as household words, but they live only in their works. Their individuality is an unknown quantity. Unlike novelists and men of letters, no one can deduce a theory of the personality of Krupp from hearing the roar of his cannon. More human and more visible as personalities are the Stephensons and the Edisons.

Among our men of letters, there is no personality who stands out so distinctly from the background of the Century as Carlyle, the grim Scotch peasant, who became the sage of Chelsea, and the inspirer of at least one generation of the more earnest souls who have done much to redeem the Century and make it fruitful in good works. He occupies an unique position. His most voluminous work, the "History of Frederick the Great," which procured for him the decoration of *Pour le Mérite*, produced no lasting impression upon his English contemporaries. But it was to his earlier works, notably his "Hero Worship," his "Sartor Resartus," and his "Cromwell's Letters and Speeches," that may be traced the influence which his books have had. He was like a re-incarnation of a Hebrew prophet, speaking the Word of God in Scotch dialect, ever preaching the seriousness of life and the virtue of strenuous endeavour. His influence on the whole has been one of almost unmixed good; and in the Nineteenth Century there will be few figures more remembered than that of Thomas Carlyle.

Another Scotchman left behind him the abiding memory of a great personality. Dr. Livingstone, missionary and explorer, may fairly be regarded as one of the popular heroes of the Century. Many circumstances contributed to give him this position, apart from the sterling integrity, the genial enthusiasm of his character. He may be regarded as the supreme type of the missionary explorer, but he was more of an explorer than a missionary. He is the most distinguished of the three missionaries—Moffat and Mackenzie being the other two—to whom we owe the possibility of a British Empire in Central Africa. Moffat was exclusively missionary. Mackenzie was missionary and politician. Livingstone was missionary and explorer. He had established his reputation as a missionary before he launched out into the then unknown and unexplored wilds of Central Africa, where his mysterious disappearance for so many years roused so much interest and so greatly excited the imagination of his fellow countrymen. The story of his solitary wanderings for years amidst the wilds of Africa, the impossibility of obtaining any tidings as to his whereabouts, and finally his romantic and sensational discovery by Stanley in the heart of the Dark Continent, combined to fix his figure permanently in the public mind. Livingstone was a Scotch enthusiast, which means that his enthusiasm never got the better of his common-sense. The simple piety of the man, his modesty and humility, his unobtrusive performance of heroic tasks, and the hair-breadth escapes through which he passed, made him for several years the most admired of all our explorers. Comparatively few men have emerged literally from the mouth of a lion in order to tell their adventures; but when they do and can describe from personal experience the curious anæsthesia which is produced by the teeth of the great carnivore, they are sure of having an interested audience in any part of the world.

From Livingstone we pass by natural transition to the pioneers who preceded him in the crusade against slavery. The abolitionists in this country and in America constitute very remarkable groups of men. In our country Clarkson, Wilberforce, Fowell Buxton and Zachary Macaulay, laboured with quenchless zeal in the great task of securing the abolition, first of the slave-trade and subsequently of the status of slavery in the British dominions, and the memory of their public-spirited devotion adds a halo to the somewhat repellent features of the early Nineteenth Century. When the nation was immersed in the Napoleonic war abroad, and at home was weltering in aimless discontent, in the midst of all confusion this group of philanthropists steadily laboured in the work of propaganda and agitation until at last they succeeded in accomplishing their task. Clarkson and Wilberforce, although they had some-

JOHN KEATS.
1795–1821.

ROBERT BROWNING.
1812–1889.

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH.
1770–1850.

ELIZABETH BARRETT BROWNING.
1806–1861.

ALGERNON CHARLES SWINBURNE.
Born 1837.

MATTHEW ARNOLD.
1822–1888.

POETS—II.

what stormy moments, sailed in comparatively smooth waters compared with those which had to be navigated by the anti-slavery apostles in the United States of America, for in the great Republic of the West slavery was a domestic institution. For many years it was regarded as *lèse majesté* to say a word in opposition to the sacred privilege of the White to hold the Black man in the condition of the live stock on his farm. The acts of the anti-slavery apostles in Massachusetts and elsewhere, constitute one of the most stirring and inspiring stories of the century. They went in peril of their lives. Theodore Parker used to compose his sermons with a pistol lying on his desk. William Lloyd Garrison went for years in daily peril of his life. His biography is too monumental to be mastered by any but the interested student of that particular epoch of human history. In England he is known by two tributes paid to him, one by his own countryman Lowell, the other by Mr. Bright. Who has not read Lowell's famous verses, beginning :—

"In a small chamber, friendless and alone,
Toiled o'er his types a poor, unknown young man,
The place was dark, unfurnitured and mean,
But there the freedom of a race began.
Help came but slowly. Surely no man yet
Put lever to the heavy world with less.
What need of help? He knew how types were set;
He had a dauntless spirit and a press."

Mr. Bright's eulogium was pronounced at the public breakfast given in honour of Mr. Lloyd Garrison at St. James's Hall on June 29th, 1867. Quoting the epistle to the Hebrews, he said: "Time would fail me to tell of Gideon, of Barak, of Samson, of Jephtha, of David, of Samuel, and the prophets, who through faith subdued kingdoms, obtained promises, stopped the mouths of lions, quenched the violence of fire, escaped the edge of the sword, out of weakness were made strong, waxed valiant in fight, turned to flight the armies of the aliens. I ask if this grand passage of the inspired writer may not be applied to that heroic band who have made America the perpetual home of freedom? Were they not on fame's eternal bead-roll worthy to be filed?"

The Anti-Slavery Society* exists still, and now and again a good Quaker shows that the enthusiasm for human liberty has not quite died out in the land. But philanthropy has changed its venue. For the last sixty years, in this country at least, the enthusiasm for humanity which spent itself at the beginning of the century in the crusade against black slavery—that sum of all villainies—has been concerning itself with the amelioration of the conditions of the white slaves of modern civilisation. Lord Shaftesbury, more than any other, was the Man of the new movement. From the day when Lord Ashley* called attention to the woeful condition of women and children employed in the factories, down to the day of his death in 1885, he was recognised universally as the typical philanthropist of his era. Social conditions in England are still very far from ideal, but they are paradisaical when one remembers the condition of the toilers when Lord Ashley began his legislation. Imagine England without any Factory Acts, without any factory inspectors, and without any public opinion in favour of the protection of the child, and we can form some glimmering notion of the kind of Inferno upon which Lord Ashley turned the bull's-eye of his philanthropic lantern. Lord Shaftesbury was a type of that not unusual combination in which the broadest possible spirit of philanthropy is united with the narrowest possible religious creed. He was a great and good man, but his Evangelicalism was of the straightest, of which the most familiar illustration was the fact that he described Professor Seeley's "Ecce Homo" as "the most pestilential book ever vomited from the jaws of hell." But in this, as in other things, Lord Shaftesbury was Exeter Hall in breeches. A certain narrowness is often necessary to give intensity, as the containing walls of a mill-stream lend force to a shallow rivulet, without which it would never have been able to turn a water-wheel.

Together with Lord Shaftesbury is associated in the public mind Mrs. Browning, one of the most gracious personalities of the century, whose "Cry of the Children" gave lyrical expression to the passion of sympathy. Like Tom Hood's "Song of the Shirt," it was one of those rare poems which embodied in brief compass the inarticulate sob which occasionally rises from the heart of a nation :—

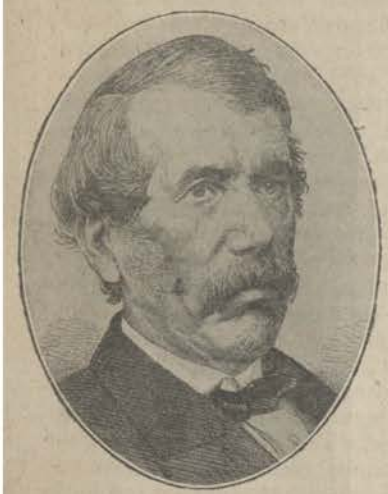
"How long," they say, "how long, O cruel nation,
Will you stand, to move the world, on a child's heart,
Stifle down with a mailed heel its palpitation,
And tread onward to your throne amid the mart?
Our blood splashes upward, O our tyrants,
And your purple shows your path;
But the child's voice curseth deeper in the silence
Than the strong man in his wrath!"

The philanthropic movement associated with Exeter Hall has gone wider afield in the last

* June 1st, 1840.—The first public meeting of the Society for the Extinction of the Slave Trade, and for the civilisation of Africa, held in Exeter Hall, presided over by Prince Albert. "I sincerely trust," he said, "that this great country will not relax in its efforts until it has finally and for ever put an end to a state of things so repugnant to the principles of Christianity and to the best feelings of our nature."

* On August 4th, 1840, Lord Ashley, afterwards Lord Shaftesbury, carries a motion for an Address to the Crown concerning the employment of the children of the poorer classes in mines and factories; "and to collect

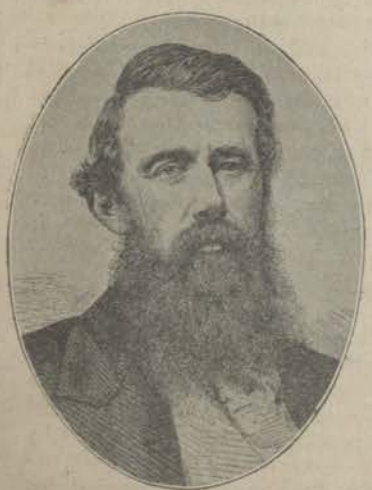
SIR CHARLES STURT.
AUSTRALIAN EXPLORER. 1796–1869.



DAVID LIVINGSTONE.
AFRICAN MISSIONARY AND EXPLORER.
1813–1873.

ROBERT MOFFAT.
AFRICAN MISSIONARY. 1795–1883.

SIR JOHN FRANKLIN.
ARCTIC EXPLORER. 1786–1847.



JOHN HANNING SPEKE.
AFRICAN EXPLORER. 1827–1864.

JOHN COLERIDGE PATTESON.
BISHOP OF MELANASIA. 1827–1871.

INTREPID EXPLORERS.

quarter of the century, and has found expression in various forms of socialistic and semi-socialistic activity. The one great new feature of latter-day philanthropy is associated with the comparatively unknown personality of Arnold Toynbee, whose name will be for ever connected with the pioneer settlement of Toynbee Hall in Whitechapel, which he founded in connection with Canon Barnett at St. Jude's, Whitechapel. Since then the University Settlement has made the tour of the English-speaking world; and there are few great towns in which earnest men and women are not endeavouring to reunite the links of human intercourse which have been severed by the segregation of the classes and the emigration of the well-to-do Haves from the Have-nots who dwell in the shadow of the darkness of the slums.

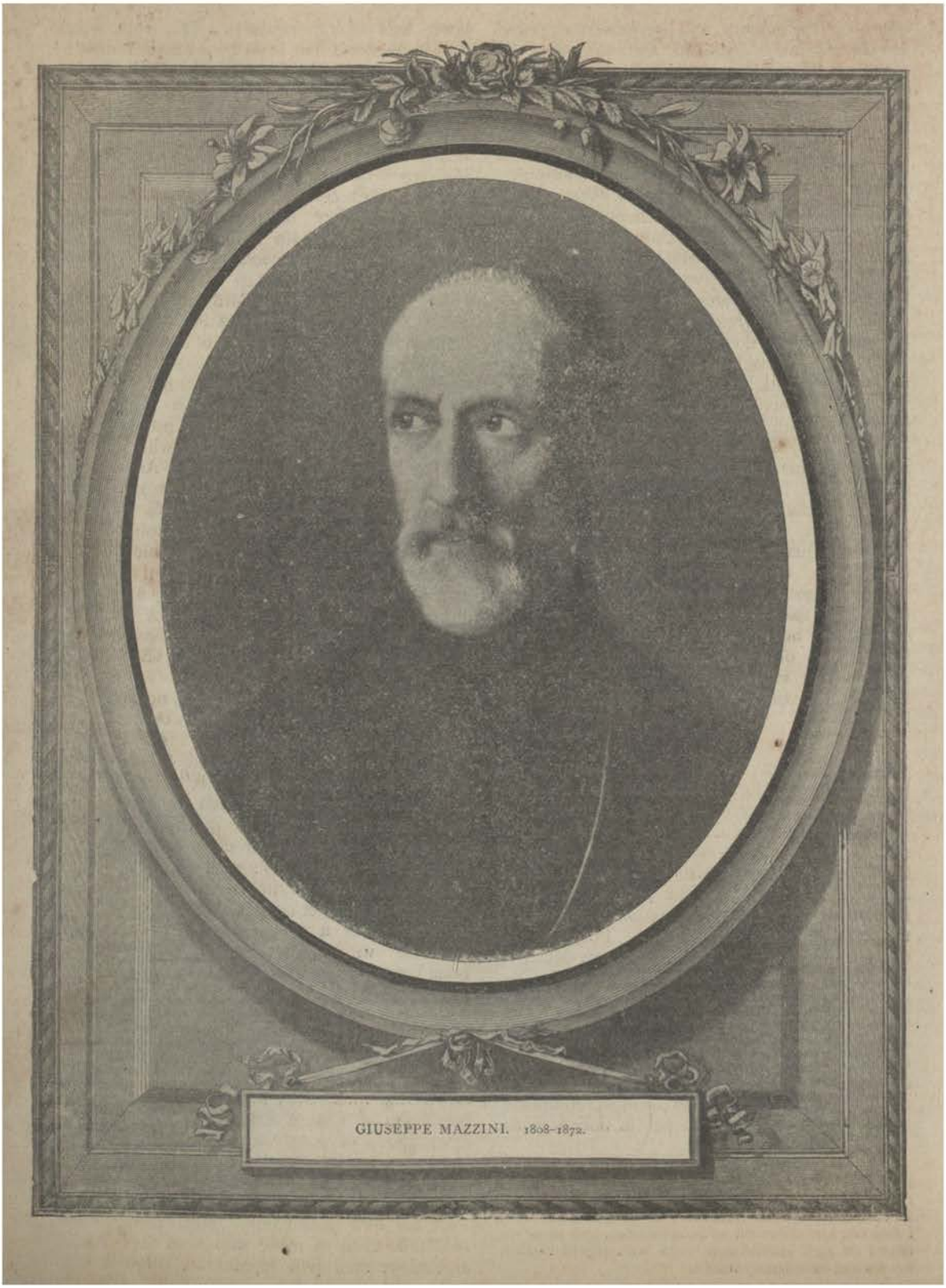
The Socialists pure and simple have thrown up no great individuality, unless we may regard Lassalle, Karl Marx, the doctrinaire founder of modern German socialism, as answering to that description. Robert Owen, in England, may be called the pioneer of both socialism and co-operation, as Prudhon was in France. There are many bright and particular stars in the socialist firmament, but there is neither a sun nor a moon, and the movement, as a whole, is greater than any of its leaders. This, of course, may be regarded as either the Nemesis or the glory of a movement which aims at the repression of individuality, and therefore relies less than any other upon the personality of its leaders.

Evangelicalism in the middle century was philanthropic. High Churchmen and Nonconformists alike, towards the close of the century, had become semi-socialistic, and the tendency of modern religious movements is more and more to concern themselves with the material as well as the moral welfare of the people. Of these modern movements the Salvation Army affords the most striking illustration. Founded on extremely narrow lines, almost defiantly declaring its determination to confine itself solely to the saving of the souls of individual men and women, it evolved, under the influence of Mr. and Mrs. Booth—two of the most remarkable personalities to be found in this latter day in England—a great scheme of social service. The Booth family as a whole may be regarded as the most remarkable unit that has emerged to public notice in the latter half of the century. The work which they have done has been by no means only, or even chiefly, confined within the limits of the organisation which they have created. The stimulus which they gave to the employment of women in religious and social service, their recognition of the value of discipline and obedience in religious orders, as well as the flaming spirit of proselytism which reminded Bishop Lightfoot of the zeal of the early Christians, gave them an influence which has been felt in most unexpected quarters throughout the world.

In the religious world Cardinal Newman may be regarded as the foremost Personality of the Century. He was the leader of the Tractarians, he exercised a rare personal influence even over those who differed from him profoundly. Whether at Oxford or in his Oratory at Birmingham, he was a spiritual influence that could be felt, not only by those who followed but by those who opposed him. As a writer, as a thinker, and as a leader of men, his influence, which was potent during his life, continues to survive after his death. The spirit of the man and the lifelong conflict in which he was involved between the claims of reason and those of faith, was seldom more touchingly and briefly expressed than in the letter which he wrote when the dogma of Infallibility had not yet received the sanction of an Œcumenical Council.

In the Broad Church movement, no individual towered sufficiently over his fellows to impress the public deeply with his personality. Bishop Colenso, when he employed his arithmetic to undermine the foundations of the Pentateuch, became for a time the storm-centre between the Rationalists and Irrationalists, but he probably left less impress of his character upon his generation than did the delightfully genial and sympathetic Stanley, Dean of Westminster. Dr. Martineau, although in another communion, exercised great influence over a much wider field than that enclosed within the comparatively narrow boundaries of the Unitarian denomination. The same remark applies with even greater force to Auguste Comte, the founder of the Church of Humanity. The Church of Humanity is a temple compared with the number of whose worshippers the Socinians are a vast multitude; but the influence of the teachings of Comte extends far beyond the small group of people who call themselves by his name. But Comte, in this respect resembling Herbert Spencer, has impressed his generation with a philosophical idea rather than with his own personality. Both men, to the multitude even of those who read their books and adopt their philosophies, are more or less

information as to the ages at which they are employed, the number of hours they are engaged in work, the time allowed each day for meals, and as to the actual state, condition, and treatment of such children, and as to the effects of such employment both with regard to their morals and their bodily health."



GIUSEPPE MAZZINI. 1808–1872.

abstract quantities. It is different with Mill, who was more human, and who, although a philosopher, had nevertheless been a Member of Parliament and often emerged from his retreat in order to render service to popular or unpopular causes at critical moments. About thirty years ago his name was one to conjure with, but although that day is past, he is still remembered as a singularly attractive and lovable man of blameless life, who did as much plain living and high thinking as any man of his time.

The Nineteenth Century produced two great popular leaders of the Irish people—O'Connell and Parnell. It would be difficult to imagine two personalities in greater opposition to each other. O'Connell was an effusive, theatrical, blatant, stormy, and somewhat truculent demagogue. Parnell—chilly, reserved, sparing in his words—nevertheless commanded more implicit obedience than was ever given to his predecessor. Both spent their lives in the cause of the Irish people. Each set before him two objects; each achieved one and failed in the other. O'Connell was identified with the struggle for Catholic Emancipation, which he carried to a triumphant close, and with the movement for the Repeal of the Union, in which he utterly failed.* Parnell in like manner was the founder of the Land League, which secured the passing of the Land Act and revolutionised the laws governing the tenure of land in Ireland; but he was also the leader and champion of Home Rule, which he failed to lead to victory. Parnell, however, in the organisation of the Irish Parliamentary Party, laid the foundation of a success to which the personal enthusiasm engendered by O'Connell's methods could never have attained.

The allusion to the two great leaders of revolutionary Ireland naturally suggests the leaders of several nationalities which, in the course of the Century, have stood up against their oppressors. Of these men by far the most distinguished was Mazzini, the apostle of the cause of nationality. He was much more than that, however, for he was a man of singularly lofty idealism, and some of his writings are still used as a chalice from which the lips of men drink the sacramental wine of pure humanitarianism. He was the soul of the whole revolutionary movement of the mid-century, and although he laboured primarily for Italy, his influence was felt far beyond its frontiers.

Of the men of the sword, not of the pen, Kossuth was the most eloquent and most conspicuous. It was his lot to head the revolutionary struggle of Hungary against the combined forces of Austria and Russia, and then, in exile in foreign lands—to conduct a propaganda in favour of the independence of his country—an ideal which he lived to see realised more or less imperfectly, when Prussia hurled Austria out of the Germanic Confederation. Langewicz, the leader of the Poles, passed and left no mark. Schamyl, who rallied the forces of the Circassians against the Russian conquest of the Caucasus, was in a small way a kind of popular hero in England; but that was more because he was opposing Russia than because of any keen appreciation of his own personality.

It was reserved for the last days of the closing century to furnish the world with a national hero of the old type. It is a new and strange experience to middle-aged Englishmen, who in their boyhood grew up to regard their country as the natural champion of all peoples struggling, and rightly struggling, to be free, to find this country regarded throughout the civilised world in the light in which we used to regard the Bourbons in Naples or the Austrians in Lombardy. Paul Kruger, of whom Bismarck is said to have declared after a two hours' conversation with the old President, that he had found him a statesman superior to any that he had met in his lifetime—was a Conservative of the Conservatives, and naturally distasteful to English Liberals. Nevertheless, the heroic stand which he and his handful of burghers have made against the undivided forces of the British Empire, has aroused a passionate enthusiasm in Europe, to find a parallel to which we have to recall the emotion excited in London by the visit of Garibaldi. With all his faults, the instinct of the masses of mankind recognise that Paul Kruger stands for the liberty and independence of his small nation, threatened with extinction by the overbearing arrogance and aggressive instinct of a great Empire. It is impossible to express more simply the revolution that has been wrought by the policy of Mr. Chamberlain, than by stating the fact that all Europe regards England to-day with the sentiment with which Mr. Gladstone taught his countrymen to regard King Bomba in Naples or the Turk in Bulgaria.

Quite distinct, alike from the Irish Nationalist and the Continental Revolutionist, yet possessing many traits in common with both, were the two men whose names were inseparably associated in the public mind for nearly half a century. Bright and Cobden were the great

* At the great Repeal demonstration at Tara Hill on August 15th, 1843, O'Connell said: "When you get your Parliament, all your grievances will be put an end to. Your trade will be restored, the landlord will be placed on a fair footing, and the tenants who are now so sadly oppressed will be placed in their proper position. I believe I am now in the position to announce that in twelve months more you won't be without hearing an hurrah for the Parliament on College Green."

twin brethren of the Democratic movement of the middle century. Of the two, Cobden was more fortunate than Bright in passing from the scene before an issue arose which caused the closing years of Mr. Bright's life largely to stultify the work of his prime. But no feeling of regret or disappointment, occasioned by the fact that in his old age Mr. Bright fell out of the ranks of the vanguard of progress, and became the henchman of the Conservatives and Coercionists against whom he had waged a life-long war, can impair the gratitude with which he is regarded by all who care for the application of moral principles to the government of nations. In the cause of peace, and in the cause of political reform, John Bright stood four-square to all the winds that blew, and in his early days the winds had sometimes the force of tornadoes. He never struck sail to a fear; and the stand which he made against the mad folly of the Crimean War is one of the finest things in the history of the Century. He was a great orator, not in the sense of Castelar or Lamartine, but with a simple, unadorned eloquence of the heart, which was equally effective in the House of Commons and on the platform. It may be objected that he was more of a moralist than of a politician; and if that be a fault, he may plead guilty to it. But politicians as a rule are a little breed. They are the ephemeral creatures of the hour, who pass and often leave as little personal trace upon the history of their times as the coral insect leaves upon the reef which its body has helped to build. But the mere moralist who theorises in his closet concerning the duty of man differed *in toto* from Mr. Bright, who stood in the heart of affairs, and endeavoured to apply the principles which he had learnt from the Society of Friends to the management of a great World Empire. He may be ridiculed, and he was ridiculed, as a visionary and an idealist; but even those who scouted him in the days when he was mobbed for the unpopularity of his opinions, would to-day admit that the verdict of history has been given in his favour, and against that of his traducers and defamers. He was immensely abused, for instance, for his objection to fighting France about the annexation of Savoy.*

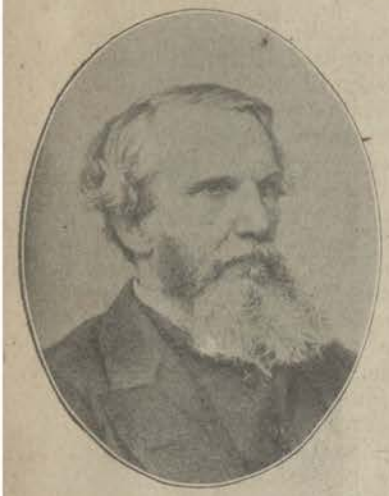
Richard Cobden was a very different man, yet the friendship between him and John Bright was as that which bound David and Jonathan. In many respects Cobden, although much less of an orator, was much more influential, and did far more to mould the thoughts of his contemporaries than Mr. Bright. Cobden's political writings were the text-book upon which many of our middle-aged Liberals were brought up, nor is it possible even to-day to find any writings so lucid, so sane, so well-informed as those in which the young Manchester manufacturer expounded to the unwilling ears of his countrymen the true policy which England should pursue in relation to Ireland, Russia, and the United States. In practical politics, apart from the doctrines which he had laid down, and which have done so much to secure the continued existence, the stability and the contentment of our Empire, there were two principal achievements. The first was the destruction of the Corn Laws, which laid the foundation of the establishment of Free Trade; and the second, the conclusion of the Treaty of Commerce with France, which began an attempt to achieve, by the extension of commercial relationships, that which he despaired of achieving by direct political negotiations. It is interesting to note, in view of the ratification by Lord Salisbury of the Hague Convention, establishing a permanent Tribunal of International Arbitration, that Mr. Cobden, as far back as 1849, moved for an Address to the Crown in favour of settling international disputes by arbitration instead of war, and was defeated by a majority of 176 to 79. At present it is the fashion to sneer at the Manchester School, with which the names of Cobden and Bright are inseparably associated. This is but a passing phase. The Historian of the Future, who sums up the forces which made the British Empire possible, and which contributed to the peaceable and prosperous evolution of society will probably accord a place second to none to the Men of Manchester.

If the beginning of the Nineteenth Century was redeemed from mere materialism and war by the anti-slavery movement, and the middle century produced the Manchester School, the last fifty years were distinguished, even glorified, by the heroic struggle which Mrs. Josephine Butler, Mr. Stansfield, and others maintained for twenty-five years against the crowning iniquity of our time. Prostitution is bad enough, but State-regulated prostitution is the worst conceivable form of slavery. The campaign against the Contagious Diseases Acts was the natural corollary of the movement for the abolition of

* Mr. Bright said, March 2nd, 1860: "I don't want the Government to give the slightest countenance to this transfer, nor do I want them, on the other hand, to give the slightest opposition to it. The opposition, if you give it, must be futile; you cannot prevent the transference of Savoy, but you may, if you like, embroil Europe and bring England into collision with France. I say 'Perish Savoy' (cries of 'Oh! Oh!') though Savoy, I believe, will not perish, or even suffer—rather than we, the representatives of the people of England, should involve the Government of this country with the people and the Government of France in a matter in which we have really no interest whatever."

RICHARD COBDEN. 1804-1865.

CECIL RHODES. Born 1853.



LORD LAWRENCE.
1811–1879.

THE EARL OF DURHAM.
1792–1840.

SIR GEORGE GREY. 1812–1900.

LORD CROMER.
Born 1841.

SIR BARTLE FRERE. 1815–1886.

SIR GAVAN DUFFY.
Born 1816.

EMPIRE BUILDERS.

slavery. The subject was infinitely distasteful. To devote years to the study and to the agitation of the problem, was a moral martyrdom. But, thank God, although a race of nobles may die out—

> "They fail not the kinglier breed
> Who royal diadems attain."

Such movements are the touchstones of moral heroism. They are "God's stern winnowers," which separate the wheat from the chaff. To be God's scavenger is no holiday task. Mrs. Butler, her many brave women and her few brave men, never rested from their labour until the British Statute Book was freed from the stain of the Acts which sacrificed the liberty of women to the vice of man. Nor did they rest content with their victory in Great Britain. They carried the war into the Continent, and founded one of the many international associations which are the distinctive characteristic of the century. They have at least succeeded in placing a huge interrogation point in every land, after the customary declaration of Authority that women who have lost their virtue have no longer any civic or human rights. That woman is still a woman, even though she be numbered among the sisterhood of shame is a truism, but that it is truism to-day is due more to Mrs. Butler than to any one else. To many even now it seems a paradox. Possibly in the Twentieth Century the seed which she has sown may have sprung up and ripened sufficiently for the average man in the street to realise the monstrous injustice of keeping diverse weights and measures for men and women, and of heaping the strongest censure and the heaviest burden upon the weaker and more dependent sex.*

*Personally I owe Mrs. Butler a debt of gratitude, which I lose no opportunity of acknowledging, but which I can never repay. But for her inspiration, counsel, encouragement and support, I should never have essayed what, on the whole, I am inclined to believe was the most useful and most needed work I ever was permitted to do for my fellow men. The writing of "The Maiden Tribute of Modern Babylon," was but a bagatelle compared with the work which she did year in and year out; but it gave one, for the time at least a right to stand by her side as a fellow worker in the most sacred of all causes. That I should have been tripped up on a point of mere detail in relation to a single page in that terrible narrative, tripped up, as the jury found, because I had in one point been deceived by my agent, in no way affects the authentic value of the investigation, which compelled a reluctant legislature to postpone all other business to the passing of the new law for the protection of girls. The substantial accuracy of the Maiden Tribute was attested after careful examination at the Mansion House in the following terms: "We are satisfied, that taken as a whole the statements of the *Pall Mall Gazette* on this question are substantially true.—July 29th." This certficate was signed by Sir Robert Reid, Q.C., who acted as legal member of the Committee. The Archbishop of Canterbury (Benson), the Bishop of London (Temple), Cardinal Manning, and Mr. Samuel Morley.

I have reserved for the close of this rapid sketch of some of the leading personalities of the Nineteenth Century, what I have to say about Mr. Cecil Rhodes. "Among living men, since Mr. Gladstone died, there is no one so much abused, no one so much belauded. He has attained to that supreme felicity of being always either sworn at or sworn by. Whether we are blessed or banned by our fellow-men, the great thing is to move them deeply. This Mr. Rhodes has done and does. He is one of the most conspicuous personalities of our time. No man, not seated on a throne, commands so much attention, excites so much interest. For weal or for woe, he has profoundly influenced the history of the world. He has made mankind realise the infinite potentialities there are in millionaires—when they have imagination. Mr. Rhodes is the only millionaire in this Century of Millionaires, who has not been paralysed or suffocated by his wealth. He is comparatively a pauper beside such men as the Carnegies and Vanderbilts and Rockfellers, but how much more potent is a penny in his hands than a pound in theirs! He has been the first to grasp the idea of the political responsibility of the millionaire. He uses his wealth, as Princess Radziwill has well said, as Cæsar used his legions, and he would no more accumulate wealth for the sake of wealth than Cæsar would have multiplied his soldiers merely for the sake of lengthening his muster-rolls. The spectacle is so unique that half his countrymen don't believe that it can be genuine. But those who know Mr. Rhodes declare that they have few higher hopes for the future than that the Twentieth Century may produce a millionaire who will be as sincere and as resolute in the cause of peace as Mr. Rhodes is sincere and resolute in the cause of the Empire. Of such a man there is at present no sign. Enthusiasm for the cause of peace and arbitration is, with most millionaires, a thing from the lips outward. It never affects their chequebook. That is what differentiates them from Mr. Rhodes. He backs his opinions with solid cash. He lives for his ideas, and spends his millions to secure their triumph. He is not infallible; but however great his wealth may be, it is the least part of his distinction. Almost alone among South Africans, he has the mind of a statesman. He has been too precipitate. It does not do to hurry the parturition of empires. His ethical education has been so much neglected, that he is almost as oblivious to the criminality of the present war as if he had been a bishop or an ex-president of the Wesleyan Conference. But he realises the fundamental truths. He knows South Africa cannot be governed excepting by and through

the Dutch. If South Africa is not to be lost to the Empire, it will only be by a reconciliation between him and the Dutch. As, at present, neither party seems inclined to take the first step, the Empire is perishing, the Dutch farms are burning, and unless either or both bestir themselves promptly, the massive personality of Cecil Rhodes will loom lurid on the page of history as the man who half built and then entirely wrecked the South African Empire of Britain.

The end of the Century is close at hand. The curtain will soon be rung down upon the stage, so crowded with the *dramatis personæ* of the great tragi-comedy of the history of the world.

Of all those who lived and loved, laboured and fought, wrote and preached in 1801, how many remain to-day? Here and there a centenarian may linger on, a half-living link between the Eighteenth and the Twentieth Centuries. But all the rest? Death, the "calm, unstormy wave that oversweeps the world," has "carried them away as with a flood; They are as a sleep: in the morning they are like grass which groweth up. In the morning it flourisheth, and groweth up; in the evening it is cut down, and withereth." Of the 1500 millions of mortals now inhabiting this planet, not 1500 will live to hail the dawn of another century. You and I, and all whom we know and love, will have passed hence long before 2001. How vain will then seem all the hectic fevers of our ambitions, the nervous frettings of our fears! And if they will seem so to us after but the lapse of a hundred years, how must they appear in the sight of whom the Psalmist sang: "A thousand years in Thy sight are but as yesterday when it is past, and as a watch in the night?"

CHRONOLOGY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

1801.

Legislative Union of Great Britain and Ireland, Jan. 1. First united Parliament meets, Feb. 2.
Sale of fine wheaten flour prohibited, Jan. 31.
Addington Administration formed, March.
British Expedition to Egypt. French defeated at Alexandria, March 21. Capitulated soon after.
Death of Paul I. of Russia, March 24. Armed Neutrality dissolved. Anglo-Russian Treaty, June 17.
Bombardment of Copenhagen and destruction of the Danish fleet by Nelson, April 2.
Habeas Corpus Act suspended in England, April 19.
First census taken. Population of England and Wales, 10,942,646; population of United Kingdom estimated at 16,237,300; population of London, 864,845.
Defeat of French and Spanish fleets off Cadiz, July 12.
Concordat signed by Napoleon and the Pope for the re-establishment of religion.

1802.

Peace of Amiens signed by Great Britain, France, Spain, and Holland, March 27.
Napoleon elected Consul for life, Aug. 2.
French expedition to San Domingo to suppress revolting blacks.
Photographs first produced in England by Wedgwood and Davy.
Legion of Honour instituted.
Sunday School Union formed.
Publication of the *Edinburgh Review* commenced.

1803.

Colonel Despard and others executed for conspiring to seize the person of the King, Feb. 21.
War again declared with France in May, and with Holland in June. French invade Hanover in May. Another French army occupies Naples. French in San Domingo surrender to British.
Louisiana purchase made by the United States, April 30.
Insurrection in Dublin; assassination of Lord Kilwarden, July 23.
The British yeomanry and volunteers raised to 380,000 men, in anticipation of a French invasion.
Mahratta War. Victory of Assaye won by Sir Arthur Wellesley, Sept. 23.
St. Lucia acquired by capitulation, June.
Code Napoléon completed.
British Guiana acquired, Sept. 1.
Settlement of Tasmania.

1804.

Pitt becomes Premier, May 15.
Napoleon declared Emperor of the French, May 18. Crowned, Dec. 2.
Francis II., Emperor of Germany, becomes Emperor of Austria, Aug. 11.
War declared against Spain by Great Britain, Dec. 12.
The British and Foreign Bible Society founded.
War against Holkar begins. Ends, 1805.
Haiti declares itself independent of France, Jan. 1.

1805.

Third Coalition against France formed by England, Austria, Russia, and Naples.
Battle of Trafalgar, and victory of Nelson over the combined fleets of France and Spain, Oct. 21. Death of Nelson.
Lord Lake overcomes the Mahrattas, and captures Bhurtpore, April 2.
Genoa incorporated with France, June 30.
Battle of Ulm, Oct. 17. Battle of Austerlitz, Dec. 2. Austrians and Russians defeated.
Napoleon dethrones the Bourbons in Naples, Dec: Joseph appointed King next year.
Order of the Garter reconstituted, Jan. 17.

1806.

Treaty of Presburg. Austria loses Venice and the Tyrol, Jan. 1.
Public funeral of Lord Nelson in St. Paul's Cathedral, Jan. 9.
Cape of Good Hope taken from the Dutch by Sir David Baird, Jan. 8.
William Pitt died, Jan. 23. Charles James Fox died, Sept. 13.
Fourth coalition against France, Oct. 6. Berlin Decree issued, Nov. 27.
French war with Prussia, Battles of Jena and Auerstädt. Berlin taken, Oct. 27. Napoleon enters Vienna, Nov. 14.
Confederation of the Rhine established, July 12. Holy Roman Empire dissolved.
Buenos Ayres taken by British, June 27. Finally evacuated, July 7, 1807.

1807.

The Slave Trade abolished by Parliament, March 25.
Orders of Council issued, prohibiting trade with ports occupied by the French, Jan. 7 and Nov. 21.
Russia declares war against Great Britain, March 8.
Curaçao taken by British. Restored 1814.
War with Turkey, Jan. 7. British fleet forces the Dardanelles, Feb. 19. Attack on Constantinople fails.
Battle of Eylau, Feb. 7, 8. Friedland, June 14. Treaty of Tilsit, July 7–9.
French invade Portugal; Junot enters Lisbon, Nov. 30.
Bombardment of Copenhagen. Ends with surrender of Danish fleet, Sept. 8.
Camera Lucida invented by Dr. Wollaston.
Gas first introduced for lighting London, in Golden Lane.

1808.

French overthrow the Papal Government, Feb. 2. Inquisition abolished, Dec. 4.
British expedition to Portugal under Sir A. Wellesley.
The French defeated at Roliça, Aug. 17; at Vimiera, Aug. 21. Convention of Cintra concluded, Aug. 30.
Russian fleet captured in the Tagus, Sept. 3.
Convention of Berlin with Prussia, Nov. 5.
French take Madrid, March 1. Charles IV. of Spain abdicates in favour of Napoleon, May 1. Joseph

ICELAND (Danish)
GERMAN STATES
1. Luxemburg
2. Mecklenburg, Hanover Brunswick, Nassau etc.
3. Baden
4. Wurtemberg
5. Saxony
UNITED KINGDOM
ITALIAN STATES
5. Parma
6. Modena
7. Lucca
8. Tuscany
9. Papal States
NORWAY AND SWEDEN
Finland
ASIATIC RUSSIA
Volga
RUSSIA
DENMARK
Helgoland (Br.)
BALTIC
Duchy of Warsaw
Cracow
Danube
FRANCE
AUSTRIA
Hungary
CASPIAN SEA
Georgia
Mingrelia
Daghestan
SPAIN
Nice
CORSICA
NAPLES
BLACK SEA
TURKEY
SARDINIA
TWO SICILIES
Gibraltar (Br.)
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Ionian Isles (Br.)
Malta (Br.)
TURKEY IN ASIA
Boundary of German Confederation
EUROPE
TREATY of VIENNA
9th June 1815.
ICELAND (Danish)
UNITED KINGDOM
NORWAY AND SWEDEN
Finland
ASIATIC RUSSIA
Volga
RUSSIA
DENMARK
Helgoland (Br.)
BALTIC
Poland
FRANCE
AUSTRIA
CASPIAN SEA
SPAIN
CORSICA
NAPLES
Danube
WALLACHIA
SERVIA
CRIMEA
BLACK SEA
Kars
TURKEY
SARDINIA
TWO SICILIES
Gibraltar (Br.)
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Ionian Is. (Br.)
GREECE
Malta (Br.)
TURKEY IN ASIA
EUROPE
TREATY of PARIS
30th March 1856.

Bonaparte enters Madrid as King, June 12. Napoleon enters Madrid, Dec. 4. Napoleon at the height of his power. At Erfurt, Sept. 29, four kings and thirty-four princes do him houour.

1809.

Battle of Corunna, and death of Sir John Moore, Jan. 16.
Saragossa taken by the French, Feb. 21.
Passage of the Douro by Sir A. Wellesley, May 12. Battle of Talavera, July 28.
The Walcheren Expedition ends disastrously in November.
Senegal taken by the British.
Scandal in connection with sale of Commissions by Mrs. Clarke.
Great Britain and Austria form Fifth coalition against France.
Turks defeat Russians near Silistria, Sept. 26.
Napoleon takes Vienna a second time, May 11. Battle of Wagram, July 5, 6.
Pope excommunicates Napoleon, June 10.
Pope deposed, July 14.
Napoleon divorces Josephine, Dec. 16.

1810.

Defeat of the French by Lord Wellington at Busaco, Sept. 27. Wellington at Torres Vedras, Oct. 9.
Napoleon marries Maria Louise of Austria, April 2. North Germany annexed, Dec. 10.
Napoleon annexes Holland, July 11. French Empire contains 130 departments and 50,000,000 subjects.
The Primitive Methodists separated from the Wesleyan Conference.
Chili establishes its independence.
Commercial crisis and general embarrassment of trade.
The arrest of Sir Francis Burdett causes a riot in London, April 6.

1811.

French annex Hamburg, Jan. 1.
The Regency of the Prince of Wales commenced, Feb. 5.
Population estimated at 18,509,116.
Battle of Fuentes d'Onoro, May 5, and capture of Almeida by Wellington, May 10. Battle of Albuera fought by Marshal Beresford, May 16.
"Luddite" riots of Nottingham weavers, November.
Kaffir War breaks out, ends 1812.
Paraguay becomes independent.

1812.

Mr. Perceval assassinated by Bellingham, May 11. Earl of Liverpool's Administration formed.
Ciudad Rodrigo stormed by Wellington, Jan. 19; and Badajoz, April 6. Battle of Salamanca, July 22; Wellington enters Madrid, Aug. 12.
War declared with the United States, June 18.
Treaty of peace concluded with Sweden, July 6.
French War against Russia. Napoleon crosses the Vistula, June 6. Battle of Smolensk, Aug. 17–18. Battle of Borodino, Sept. 7. Moscow taken, Sept. 14. Burnt, Sept. 16–19. Retreat begins, Oct. 19. Passage of the Beresina, Nov. 26. Niemen recrossed, Dec. 13. Total French loss, 300,000.
Congregational Union organised.
First steam-vessel in British waters started on the Clyde.

1813.

Wellington defeats Joseph Bonaparte and Jourdan at Vittoria, June 21. Battles of the Pyrenees, July and August. Storming of San Sebastian.
The British forces enter France, Oct. 7. Spaniards capture Pamplona, Oct 31.
Convention of Peterwardein between England and Russia against France, July 8.
Treaty of Teplitz, Oct. 3.
French victory of Hochkirchen, May 22. Austria joins allies, Aug. 12. Three great armies raised by allies, Aug. 26, 27. Battle of Dresden. Battle of Leipsic, Oct. 16–19. General French retreat.
Robert Southey made poet laureate on the death of Pye.
Shelley's first poems published.

1814.

Wellington victorious over Soult at Orthes, Feb. 27; at Toulouse, April 10; is created a Duke and £300,000 voted him by Parliament.
Abdication of Napoleon, April 11; he lands at Elba, May 14.
Treaty of Paris, May 30. House of Bourbon restored in France.
Washington captured by the British, Aug. 24. Peace of Ghent, Dec. 24.
Opening of the Congress of Vienna, Nov. 1.
Goorkha War breaks out.
Cape Colony finally acquired, Aug. 13.
First printing machine used for newspapers, in the *Times* office.
Wordsworth's "Excursion" appeared. "Waverley" published.

1815.

Napoleon escapes from Elba, and lands at Cannes, March 1; is joined by the army at Fontainebleau, March 20. Treaty of Vienna, March 23.
The Prussians defeated by Napoleon at Ligny, July 16. Ney repulsed by the British at Quatre Bras on the same day.
Battle of Waterloo, and overthrow of Napoleon, June 18.
Paris surrenders to the allies, July 3. Second Treaty of Paris, Nov. 20. Bourbons again restored.
New Corn Laws, restricting importations, cause riots in the metropolis.
The British and Foreign School Society founded.
Holy Alliance formed, Sept. 26.
British National Debt, £861,039,049.
Napoleon abolishes the Slave Trade in France, March 29.
Ascension Isle occupied by colonists.

1816.

Lord Amherst undertakes an embassy to China, and fails.
Bombardment of Algiers by Lord Exmouth, Aug. 27.
Argentina becomes independent of Spain.
Death of Richard Brinsley Sheridan, July 7.
Riots in Spa Fields, Dec. 2.
Lancer regiments first formed.
Electric telegraph, with index and clockwork, invented by Sir F. Ronalds.
Elgin marbles purchased.
The safety lamp invented by Sir Humphry Davy

1817.

British and Irish Exchequers consolidated, Jan. 5.
Continued riots in various parts of the country lead to the "Green Bag Inquiry." The Habeas Corpus Act suspended, Feb. 21.
War with Pindarees. Successful, 1818.
Third Mahratta War.
Gold sovereigns first put into circulation.
The kaleidoscope invented by Sir David Brewster.
Peace Society first established in London.

1818.

Ross's Expedition in search of N. W. Passage, May 3.
Dominions of the Peshwa annexed. Rajputana States placed under British protection.
Germanic Confederation and Zollverein formed, June 8.
Marriage of William IV., July 11.
Treaty with the Netherlands for the suppression of the slave trade, May.
Death of Warren Hastings, Aug. 22.

ANTONIO CANOVA.
ITALIAN SCULPTOR. 1757–1822.

JEAN F. MILLET.
FRENCH PAINTER, 1815–1875.

ALBERT THORWALDSEN.
DANISH SCULPTOR. 1770–1844.

JEAN L. E. MEISSONIER.
FRENCH PAINTER. 1811–1891.

VASSILI VERESTCHAGIN.
RUSSI N PAINTER. BORN 1842.

J. M. W. TURNER.
ENGLISH PAINTER. 1775–1851.

G. F. WATTS.
ENGLISH PAINTER. BORN 1820.

E. J. HORACE VERNET.
FRENCH PAINTER. 1789–1863.

ARTISTS.

Infant schools opened in London.
Encke's comet discovered.

1819.

Queen Victoria born, May 24.
Great Reform meeting at Manchester; the people attacked by the yeomanry and cavalry; 11 killed and 600 injured. Known as the "Massacre of Peterloo."
The first-steam vessel crossed the Atlantic, making the passage from New York to Liverpool in twenty-six days.
Sir R. Peel's first Currency Act passed.
Franklin's Second Expedition. Ends 1822.
Another Kaffir War breaks out.
Singapore becomes a British settlement.

1820.

Death of George III. at Windsor, Jan. 29, aged 83. Accession of George IV.
The Cato Street Conspiracy discovered, Feb. 23. Thistlewood and others executed for it, May 1.
Trial of Queen Caroline, Aug. 17.
Ali Pasha of Yanina rebels against the Turks.
Death of Grattan.
Steel pens came into general use.
Regent's Canal finished.

1821.

Population by General Census, 21,272,187. First complete Irish census gives population as 6,801,827.
King George IV. visited Ireland, August.
Bank of England resumes specie payments in May.
Privy Council decides against Queen Caroline's claim to be crowned. Queen dies August 14.
Mexico declares its independence.
Death of Napoleon at St. Helena, May 5.
Insurrection in Moldavia and Wallachia, March.

1822.

Suicide of the Marquis of Londonderry (Viscount Castlereagh), August 12.
Brazil declares its independence, Sept. 22. Pedro I. crowned Emperor, Dec.
Canning becomes Foreign Secretary, Sept. 22.
Turks massacre Christians at Scio, April.
Caledonian Canal opened, Nov. 1.
Sandhurst Academy founded.
Death of Shelley by drowning.

1823.

French enter Spain to suppress Constitutionalists, April 7. Despotism re-established.
French King dies, Sept. 16. Charles X. succeeds.
Monroe doctrine promulgated, Dec. 2.
Immigrants settle in Natal.
Mechanics' Institutes founded, the first by Dr. Birkbeck, in London, and many others shortly after.
Opening of the Locomotive Railway at Stockton.
Macaulay's first essay published.
Oxford Union Society established as a Debating Club.
Cabs introduced into London.

1824.

First Burmese war, and capture of Rangoon, May 5.
Straits Settlements acquired.
National Gallery founded with the Angerstein collection.
Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Animals founded.
Roman Catholic Society organised in Ireland.
Death of Lord Byron.

1825.

Irish Catholic Association suppressed, February.
Burmese war continues.
Assam acquired.
Commercial crisis, caused by speculation in Joint Stock Companies; 770 banks suspend.
First railway opened, between Stockton and Darlington.
Alexander I. dies, Dec. 1. Decembrist insurrection in Russia follows, suppressed.

1826.

Reform of the Criminal Law commenced by Sir Robert Peel. Punishment of death for minor offences abolished.
Peru becomes independent of Spain.
Russian war with Persia begins, Sept. 28. Peace, Feb. 22, 1828.
Massacre of the Janissaries in Constantinople, June.
Storming of Bhurtpore, Jan. 18; followed by peace with the Burmese, February.
British troops sent to Portugal in support of Donna Maria, December.
Lime light invented by Lieut. Drummond, used on the Ordnance Survey.
Abolition of Lotteries.
Joint stock banks established.

1827.

Canning becomes Premier, April.
Treaty of London, to support the Greeks in their struggle against the Turks, concluded by England, France, and Russia, July 6.
Death of Canning, Aug. 8.
Battle of Navarino, and destruction of the Turkish fleet, Oct. 20.
Authorship of the "Waverley Novels" acknowledged by Sir Walter Scott.
The Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge founded.
Spectrum Analysis worked out by Herschell.

1828.

Wellington Administration founded, Jan. 28.
Catholic Emancipation riots in Ireland. Daniel O'Connell elected for Clare, July 5.
King's College, London, founded; and University College opened.
French war with Algeria.
War between Russia and Turkey. Russians enter Adrianople on Aug. 29, 1829. Peace signed April 14.
Corporation and Test Acts repealed.
Licensing Act passed.

1829.

Agitation for the Repeal of the Union commenced by O'Connell.
The Metropolitan Police established by Sir Robert Peel, September
Roman Catholic Emancipation Act passed, April 13.
Locomotive engine invented by the Stephensons, and first used. The "Rocket" travels 25 to 35 miles an hour.
Settlement of colonists in Western Australia.
Congregational Union founded.
New Metropolitan Police force organised.
Suttee abolished in India.

1830.

George IV. died June 26, aged 68.
Accession of King William IV.
Turks recognise independence of Greece, April 25.
Revolution in France, July 27-29. Charles X. flees. Provisional Government formed. Louis Philippe accepts the Crown, Aug. 9.
Revolution in Poland, suppressed.
Revolution at Brunswick, flight of the Duke, Sept. 7.
Threshing-machines first introduced.
Flint and steel replaced by lucifer matches.
Opening of the locomotive railway between Liverpool and Manchester; Mr. Huskisson killed.

Royal Geographical Society founded.
Between this year and 1856 Father Mathew received the temperance pledge from over 2,000,000 persons.
France conquers Algiers.

1831.

Population by census, 24,392,485.
Reform riots at Bristol, &c.; loss of life and destruction of property.
Outbreak of cholera in England, 52,000 deaths in this year and 1832.
The British Association for the Advancement of Science instituted.
Bill for Reform of Parliament introduced by Lord J. Russell, March 1. Parliament dissolved in April. The Reform Bill passed the Commons, Sept. 19; rejected by the Lords, Oct. 7.
Jesuits expelled from France. Election riots in Paris, Dec. 21. Streets barricaded.
Young Italy party founded by Mazzini, 1831–33.

1832.

The first Reform Act passed, June 7.
Chartist association formed.
Rioting in London. Duke of Wellington attacked on the anniversary of Waterloo.
French take Antwerp under a treaty with England.
Legitimist insurrection in France.
Death of Sir Walter Scott.
Mr. Gladstone elected M.P. for Newark.

1833.

Ibrahim Pacha threatens Constantinople, Jan.
Russians enter Constantinople, April 3.
First Factory Act, regulating hours of labour.
Coercion Act, for repression of crime in Ireland, passed April 2.
Abolition of slavery in the British dominions, £20,000,000 voted as compensation.
The University of Durham founded.
The Falkland Islands occupied.
The Tractarian movement commenced at Oxford by the publication of "Tracts for the Times."
Death of William Wilberforce.
Republican insurrections in Lyons and Paris.

1834.

Act for the Amendment of the Poor Law passed.
Melbourne administration formed, July. Dissolved, Nov. Peel administration follows.
The Ecclesiastical Commission founded.
An alliance entered into by England, France, Spain, and Portugal, for the pacification of the Peninsula.
770,280 slaves become free, Aug. 1.
Trades union disturbances in various parts of the country.
The Houses of Parliament burnt, Oct. 16.
Annexation of Coorg, April.
Insurrection in Paris, April 12–14; ending in massacre.
The survey of the southern heavens commenced by Sir J. F. Herschel.
Death of Coleridge and Lamb.
The sewing machine invented.

1835.

Corporation Reform Act, for the regulation of municipal corporations.
Reform Association founded to protect electors.
Lord Melbourne returns to power, April.
The City of London School founded.
Captain Burne's mission to Cabul.
Great Boer Trek from Cape Colony.
An "auxiliary legion" sent to Spain under Sir De Lacy Evans.
Death of Francis I. of Austria; Ferdinand I. acceded, March 2.
Mails first sent on the overland route to India.
Patents for screw-propellers granted.

1836.

General Registration Act, for births, deaths, and marriages.
Tithe Commutation Act, Aug. 13.
South Australia colonised.
The New Marriage Act, authorising marriages in dissenting chapels.
In France, Louis Napoleon's abortive conspiracy fails.
Death of Charles X., Nov. 6.
The first screw steam-vessel introduced in England.

1837.

William IV. died, June 20.
Accession of Queen Victoria.
Spanish victory over Carlists near Valencia, July 15.
Hanover separated from Great Britain. Decree of King of Hanover annulling Constitution of 1833, Nov. 1.
Outbreak of rebellion in Lower Canada, Nov. 13. Battle of St. Eustace, Dec. 13.
Persians lay siege to Herat, Nov. 23.
The University of London established.
Carlyle's "History of the French Revolution" appeared.
"Pickwick Papers" commenced by Charles Dickens.
The electric telegraph invented by Wheatstone and Cooke.
Electrotyping process invented.
Grand Junction Railway from Liverpool to Birmingham opened.

1838.

The insurgents in Canada repulsed in an attack on Toronto, Jan. 5. The Guards sent out, and the outbreak suppressed by Sir J. Colborne.
War declared with the Afghans under Dost Mohammed, Oct. 1.
House of Lords rejects Lord Brougham's anti slavery resolution, Feb. 20.
Death of Talleyrand, May 17.
Rupture between Great Britain and Persia, June 3. British expedition takes Karrack on Persian Gulf, June 19.
Coronation of Queen Victoria, June 28.
Hostilities break out between France and Mexico, July 12.
Emperor of Austria crowned King of Lombardy at Milan, Sept. 1.
Anti-Corn Law League formed at Manchester, Sept. 18.
Madrid declared in a state of siege, Nov. 3.

1839.

Lord Melbourne resigned, May 7. Sir Robert Peel called to office but declined power unless the Whig Ladies of the Bedchamber resigned. Lord Melbourne therefore remained Premier.
Kurrachee bombarded and taken by British, Feb. 3.
Bombardment and capture of Aden by the British, Feb. 19.
Peace concluded between France and Mexico, March 9.
Army of the Indus enters Bolan Pass in their march against Dost Mahommed, March 18. Bengal army enters Kandahar, April 25. Capture of Ghuzni by Lieut-Gen. Keane, July 23. Capture of Cabul, Aug. 7. Bombay column of British army of the Indus leaves Afghanistan, Sept. 19. Capture of Khelat by British, Nov. 13.
Treaty between Holland and Belgium signed in London, April 19.
Mehemet Ali takes the field against the Sultan, May 5.
Outbreak in Paris, and attack on Conciergerie and Hotel de Ville, May 12. Disturbance suppressed.
Chartist petition signed by 1,280,000 presented to Parliament, June 14.
Ibrahim Pasha defeats the Turks at Nezib near Aleppo, June 25.

FELIX MENDELSSOHN-BARTHOLDY.
1809–1847.

LUDWIG VON BEETHOVEN.
1770–1827.

ROBERT SCHUMANN.
1810–1856.

RICHARD WAGNER.
1813–1883.

GIUSEPPE VERDI.
Born 1814.

FREDERIC F. CHOPIN.
1810–1849.

FAMOUS COMPOSERS.

LOUIS PASTEUR. 1822 1895.

Death of Sultan Mahmoud II., aged 54. Succeeded by Abdul Medjid, July 1.
Trial of Chartist leaders, Aug. 2.
Queen announces her engagement to Prince Albert, Oct. 14.
Engagement with Chinese at Hong Kong. Chinese junks destroyed, Nov. 3.
Serious Chartist rioting at Newport, Mon., Nov. 4.
Abd-el-Kader declares war against French in Algeria, and attacks their outposts, Nov. 24.
Emperor of China publishes an edict putting an end to British trade, Dec. 6.
War between Egypt and Turkey leads to intervention of Powers.
First volume of Alison's "History of Europe" appeared.

1840.

Commencement of Rowland Hill's system of Penny Postage, Jan. 10.
Marriage of the Queen and Prince Albert, Feb. 10.
Chinese attempt to burn British shipping in Tongkoo Bay, Feb. 28.
Eart Stanhope's motion against opium trade negatived in in House of Lords, May 13.
Proclamation of sovereignty over New Zealand, May 31.
First public meeting of the Society for the Extinction of the Slave Trade, June 1.
Death of Frederick William III. of Prussia, June 7.
Chinese attack English shipping at Canton, June 9. Capture of Chusan by British, July 5.
Convention signed at London between Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and the Porte for the pacification of the Levant, July 15.
Vaccination Act passed, July 23.
Louis Napoleon's attempt at Boulogne, ending in his capture, Aug. 6. Tried, Sept. 28.
Mehemet Ali refuses the terms of the Convention of July 15, Sept. 5.
Bombardment of Beyrout by allied fleet, Sept. 7.
Sidon taken by allied forces under Commandant Napier, Sept. 27.
Abdication of King of Holland. Oct. 7.
Defeat of Ibraham Pasha near Beyrout by allied forces, Oct. 10.
Bombardment and capture of St. Jean d'Acre by allied fleet.
Surrender of Dost Mahommed, Nov. 3.
New Zealand settled.

1841.

British capture two forts on the Canton River, Jan. 7.
Mehemet Ali consents to give up Syria, and receive hereditary government of Egypt, Jan. 11.
Chinese Emperor issues edict against British, Jan. 20. British retake factory at Canton, April 18. Forts captured, May 21. Amoy taken Aug. 26. Chusan, Oct. 1.
Union of the Canadas proclaimed, Feb. 10.
Paris Fortification Bill passed, April 1.
Second Peel Administration formed, Sept.
Insurrection in favour of ex-Queen Regent Christiana of Spain began by O'Donnell, Oct. 2.
Treaty between Great Britain and Persia, Oct. 28.
Prince of Wales born, Nov. 9.
Treaty signed in London by which France, Austria, Prussia and Russia adopt English laws against slave trade, Dec. 20.
Murder of Macnaghten and Burnes in Afghanistan, Dec. 23.
Population by census, 27,036,450. Population of Ireland rose to 8,175,124.
Active agitation of the Anti-Corn Law League in the country.
"Punch" founded.

1842.

British army begins retreat from Cabul, Jan. 6. Only survivor reached Jellalabad, Jan. 13. Surrender of Ghuzni to the Afghans, March 1. General Nott repulses Afghans at Kandahar, March 10. Defeat of Akhaar Khan outside Jellalabad, April 7. General Pollock enters Jellalabad, April 16. General Nott recaptures Ghuzni, Sept. 5. British evacuate Afghanistan, Oct. 12.
Corn Law Bill receives Royal assent, April 29.
Boers of Port Natal unsuccessfully attacked by Sir H. Smith, May 4. British defeat Boers, and occupy Port Natal, May 26.
Shanghai captured by British, June 19. Capture of Chin-kiang-Foo by Sir Hugh Gough, July 21. Peace concluded. Honk Kong ceded, Aug. 26.
Opening of Thames Tunnel, Aug. 1.
Ashburton Treaty signed, Aug. 9.
Nicaraguan ports blockaded by British, Aug. 19.
French occupy Tahiti, Sept. 1.
Insurrection in Barcelona. Suppressed, Nov. 28.
Riot in Canton. Factories burnt, Dec. 7.
The Income Tax (established by Mr. Pitt in 1799, and withdrawn in 1816), revived by Sir Robert Peel as a temporary measure.
First stone of the Royal Exchange laid, Jan. 17.

1843.

Napier defeats Ameers of Scinde at Meeanee, Feb. 17. Scinde annexed.
Sandwich Islands ceded to Great Britain, Feb. 25. Restored July 31.
War with New Zealand natives begins, June 17.
Narvaez enters Madrid in triumph, July 23. Loyalists take Barcelona, Nov. 20.
Revolution in Greece, Sept. 3. Re-establishment of National Assembly.
Thames Tunnel opened. Its construction was commenced in 1825.
First cargo of guano brought from Peru for agricultural manure.
William Wordsworth succeeded Robert Southey as poet laureate.
The Free Church of Scotland founded by the secession of Dr. Chalmers and others from the Presbyterian Kirk.
Great meetings in Ireland for Repeal of the Union.
"Rebecca riots" against toll-gates in Wales.
Nasmyth Steam Hammer invented.

1844.

Trial of Daniel O'Conneil begun, Jan. 15.
Chili's Independence recognised by Spain, April 25.
The Bank Charter Act passed, July 19.
Tangier bombarded by Prince de Joinville, Aug. 6.
French attack on Mogador, town destroyed, Aug, 15.
Preliminary Treaty of peace between France and Morocco, Aug. 6.
Dissenters' Chapels Bill passed, legalising the possession of religious endowments by dissenting bodies.
Factory Act amended, and by several subsequent enactments.

1845.

Convention signed for purchase of Danish possessions in India, Feb. 22.
Swiss Cantons vote expulsion of Jesuits, March 1.
United States President sanctions Bill for annexation of Texas. Mexico declares war against United States, June 4.
New Constitution promulgated for Spain, May 23. Don Carlos renounces his claim to Spanish throne in favour of his son, Prince of the Asturias, May 18.
Great Britain and France sign new Convention for suppression of slave trade, May 29.

Bombardment of Tamatave by British and French, June 28.
British force defeated by Chief Heke in New Zealand, July 1.
British and French fleets blockade Buenos Ayres, Sept. 31.
French cavalry defeated by Abd el Kader, Sept. 16.
Insurrectionary movement against Pontifical Government in Italy, Oct. 23.
First Sikh War. British victories over Sikhs at Moodkee and Ferozeshah, December.
Sir Robert Peel resigned, Dec. 10. Resumed office, Dec. 20.
Great distress in Ireland caused by the potato disease.
The Irish National Education Society incorporated. "Queen's Colleges" founded in Belfast, Cork, and Galway. Endowment of Maynooth College causes much controversy.
Discoveries commenced at Nineveh by Mr. Layard.
Sir J. Franklin sailed on his last expedition.
Railway mania; the number of companies registered up to Oct. 31, being 1428, involving an estimated expenditure of 700 millions.
New Tariff introduced by Sir Robert Peel.
Evangelical Alliance founded.

1846.

British victory over Sikhs at Aliwal, Jan. 28. Sikhs finally defeated at Sobraon, Feb. 10.
Attempted revolution in Poland, Feb. 22. Suppressed.
Annexation of Cracow to Austria, Nov. 11.
Insurrection in Northern Portugal, April 14.
General Taylor defeats Mexicans at Palo Alto, May 8. United States declares war on 13th. United States troops capture Monterey, Sept. 24.
Escape of Louis Napoleon from Ham, May 25.
Election of Cardinal Ferretti as Pope under title of Pius IX., June 19.
Repeal of the Corn Laws passed by Sir R. Peel. The Act received the Royal assent, June 26. The Minister resigned, June 29, and was succeeded by Lord John Russell.
Discovery of the planet Neptune, Sept. 23.
British squadron enters the Tagus at Queen of Portuga's request, Nov. 26. Portuguese rebels defeated at Torres Vedras, Dec. 22.
County Courts Act, superseding Courts of Request.
Thackeray's "Vanity Fair" appeared.
Britannia Tubular Bridge begun.

1847.

King of Prussia promulgates Constitution, Feb. 3.
Mexicans defeated by General Taylor at Bueno Vista, Feb. 22. Vera Cruz and San Juan de Ulloa surrender to United States Army, March 29. Mexico captured, Sept. 15.
British destroy Bogue forts and threaten Canton, April 5.
Death of Daniel O'Connell at Genoa, May 15.
Portuguese insurgents submit to Queen Maria II., June 15.
Swiss Diet declare Sonderbund illegal, July 20. Swiss Cantons hold ineffectual Conference to settle their disputes. War ensues, Oct. 28. Swiss Federals defeat Sonderbund Leaguers at Lucerne. Town taken, Nov. 22.
Riotous demonstrations against Austrians at Milan, Sept. 8. Austria increases her army in Lombardy, occupying Parma, Modena, and Reggio, Dec. 21.
Abd el Kader surrenders to the French, Dec. 23.
Chloroform first applied as an anæsthetic by Dr. Simpson.
Commercial crisis in November, consequent upon Irish distress, &c. Bank rate of discount 8 per cent. Temporary suspension of the Bank Charter Act, Oct. 25.

1848.

Revolutionary movements throughout Europe.
Affray in Milan between Austrian troops and populace, Jan. 3.
Sicilians revolt at Palermo against King Ferdinand. Constitution conceded, Jan. 12.
Constitution of 1812 proclaimed in Naples and Sicily, Jan. 29.
Preliminaries of peace between Mexico and United States signed, Feb. 1.
Pope decrees Constitution for Roman States, Feb. 15.
Great reform demonstration in Paris, barricades raised, Feb. 28.
Messina bombarded for three days by Neapolitans, Feb. 22.
Milan declared in a state of siege, Feb. 23.
Abdication and flight of Louis Philippe, Feb. 24. Republic proclaimed on Feb. 26.
Canton of Neufchatel declares itself independent of Prussia, Feb. 29.
Grand Duke of Baden accedes to popular demands, and dismisses Ministers, March 2.
Insurrection in Munich. King yields.
Rioting at Berlin. Several persons shot, March 13.
Outbreak in Vienna. Concessions granted.
Pope issues a new Constitution, March 14.
Rupture of diplomatic relations between Great Britain and Spain, March 16.
Rising against Austrians in Milan. Provisional Government proclaimed, March 17.
Fighting at Berlin between military and populace, March 18.
Citizens of Cracow proclaim a republic.
Revolution at Modena, March 20. Duke deposed.
King of Bavaria abdicates, March 21.
Emperor of Austria consents to be proclaimed King of Poland, and promises Constitution, March 22. Austria withdraws from Venice. Provisional Government formed.
Insurrection at Kiel, and formation of Provisional Government, March 24. Holstein declares itself independent of Denmark, March 25.
Insurrection at Madrid; 200 persons killed, March 26.
Hungary declares its independence, March 30.
Attempted invasion of Belgium by French republicans, April 1.
Insurrectionary movements in Ireland. Rifle clubs formed. Chartist movement continues in England.
Danes defeated near Flensburg, April 9; near Schleswig, April 23.
Silesia and Posen declared disturbed, April 12.
New Constitution proclaimed in Austria, April 26.
Massacre of Polish insurgents by Prussian troops, May 1.
Third reading of Jewish Disabilities Bill carried, May 4.
Battle between Austrians and Piedmontese at Verona, May 6.
Military revolt in Madrid, May 7.
Sicilians declare their independence of Naples, May 13.
Fresh insurrectionary movement in Paris, May 15.
Insurrection at Naples, 400 troops killed, May 15.
Austrian Imperial family leave Vienna, May 16.
Piedmontese besiege Peschiera, May 18. Fortress afterwards surrenders.
German National Assembly meets at Frankfort, May.
Insurrection at Prague, May 29, suppressed.
Second Sikh War, June.
Annexation of Lombardy to Piedmont proclaimed, June 4.
Another insurrection breaks out in Prague, June 12.
Austrians defeated near Rivoli, June 18.
Insurrection in Paris; desperate fighting, June 23.
Venetian Assembly votes incorporation of Venice with Sardinia, July 4.
Encounter between Smith O'Brien's followers and the police in Ireland, July 29. O'Brien arrested.
Milan capitulates to the Austrians, Aug. 5.
Armistice concluded between Sardinia and Austria, Aug. 9.

GEORGE III.
1738–1820.

GEORGE IV.
1762–1830.

WILLIAM IV.
1765–1837.

ALBERT, PRINCE CONSORT.
1819–1861.

RULERS OF BRITAIN.

Armistice concluded between Prussia and Denmark, Aug. 26.
Boers defeated at Boomplaats, Aug. 29.
Bombardment of Messina by Ferdinand, Sept. 2. English and French admirals interfere.
France abolishes slavery throughout her possessions, Sept. 16.
Hungarian War of Independence begins, Sept. 25.
Louis Napoleon takes his seat in the National Assembly, Sept. 26.
Insurrection in Vienna; Emperor flees, Oct. 6.
Viennese surrender to Prince Windischgrätz, Oct. 29. Hostilities afterwards resumed. Viennese again surrender on 31st.
Berlin declared in a state of siege, Nov. 12.
Flight of the Pope from Rome, Nov. 24.
Abdication of Emperor of Austria, Dec. 2.
King of Prussia proclaims a new Constitution, Dec. 5.
Louis Napoleon proclaimed President of the French Republic, Dec. 20.
Constituent Assembly at Rome decrees deposition of Pope, Dec. 29.
Outbreak of cholera in England, 53,000 deaths.
British authority declared over Orange Free State.
Macaulay's History of England published.

1849.

Pesth surrenders to Windischgrätz, Jan. 5.
Battle of Chillianwallah, Jan 13. Surrender of Mooltan to the British, Jan. 22. Lord Gough defeats the Sikhs at Goojerat, Feb. 21. Punjaub annexed, March 29.
Pope appeals to the Catholic Powers for intervention, Feb. 18.
Austrian Emperor promulgates a new constitution, March 4.
Austrians defeat Piedmontese near Novara, March 23.
Danish War recommences, March 25.
Gen. Haynau retakes Brescia, March 30.
Hungary declares itself a free state, April 14.
French expedition in support of Pope lands at Civita Vecchia, April 26. Oudinot enters Rome, July 3.
Russian troops set out through Galicia to assist Austria against Hungarians, May 1. Austro-Hungarian troops defeat the Hungarians, June 21. Hungarians defeated at Acz, July 2.
Garibaldi defeats Neapolitans at Palestrina, May 9.
Navigation Laws repealed, June 26.
Armistice concluded between Prussia and Denmark, July 10.
Hungarians defeat Austrians at Comorn, July 11.
Peace concluded between Austria and Sardinia at Milan, Aug. 6.
Görgey and 40,000 Hungarians surrender to Russians at Arad, Aug. 11.
Venice surrenders to Austrians, Aug. 22.
Comorn surrenders to Austrians, Sept. 28.
First visit of the Queen to Ireland, August.
Completion of Lord Rosse's telescope.
Controversy on baptismal regeneration in the Church of England, caused by the refusal of the Bishop of Exeter to institute Mr. Gorham in the living of Brampton-Speke. The action "Gorham *v.* The Bishop of Exeter" commenced.

1850.

Britannia tubular bridge opened, March 5.
Hostilities resumed between Denmark and Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein, May 25.
The Pope re-enters Rome, April 12.
Bulwer-Clayton Treaty signed providing for construction of canal between Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, April 9.
German Powers, with exception of Prussia, meet in Congress at Frankfort, May 10.
American squadron nters the Tagus to enforce United States' claims against Portuguese Government, June 22.
Fatal accident to Sir R. Peel, June 29.
Peace concluded between Denmark and Prussia, July 2.
Integrity of Denmark guaranteed by England, France, Prussia, and Sweden, July 4.
Diplomatic intercourse resumed between Great Britain and Spain, Aug. 4.
Danish possessions in Africa ceded to Great Britain, Aug. 17.
United States Congress pass Fugitive Slave Bill, Sept. 13.
Massacre of Christian population of Aleppo, Oct. 16.
McClure discovers North-West Passage, Oct. 26.
Austria and Prussia mutually decree a reduction of their forces, Dec. 10.
Kaffir War breaks out, Dec. 29.
Sevastopol Harbour completed.
The "Papal Aggression," in the publication of a Papal bull establishing a Roman Catholic hierarchy in England.
Judgment in the Gorham case delivered by the Judicial Committee of Privy Council on appeal; in favour of the plaintiff, March.
Act for the Establishment of Public Libraries and Museums (amended 1866).
Alfred Tennyson succeeded Wordsworth as poet laureate.
First submarine telegraph laid between Dover and Calais. Aug. 28.
Pre-Raphaelite School of Painting appeared.

1851.

Denmark accepts terms proposed by Germanic Confederation, Jan. 11. England protests against entrance of Austria into the Germanic Confederation, Feb. 2.
Discovery of gold in New South Wales announced, May 17.
Hottentot rebellion breaks out, May 31.
House of Lords rejects Bill for admitting Jews into Parliament, July 17.
Kossuth arrives in England, Oct. 11.
Coup d'état in Paris, Dec. 2. Louis Napoleon abolishes Constitution of the Republic. Desperate fighting.
Declaration of result of voting for Louis Napoleon, Dec. 14. Immense majority in favour of election.
The population, March 31, was 27,745,949.
The First Great Exhibition opened, May 1, and closed Oct. 11. It was visited by 6,170,000 persons. Greatest number of visitors on a single day, 109,760.
First discoveries or gold in Australia.
Ecclesiastical Titles Assumption Act passed (repealed 1871).
Common Lodging-houses Act and Labouring Classes' Lodging-houses Act.

1852.

Inauguration at Notre Dame of Louis Napoleon's acceptance of ten year's presidency, Jan. 1. New Constitution proclaimed, 14th. Louis Napoleon expresses his intention to assume imperial title, March 29.
Emperor of Austria annuls Constitution of 1849.
Lord John Russell resigns, Feb. 21.
Second Burmese War.
Capture of Rangoon by British, April 14. Pegu also captured and annexed.
Secret treaty between Russia, Austria, and Prussia, recognising hereditary monarchy as national law of Europe, and declaring Count de Chambord heir to the French throne, May 20.
Ireland connected with England by submarine telegraph, June 1.
Patent Law Amendment Act passed, July 1.
French Senate prays for re-establishment of hereditary power in the Bonaparte family, Sept. 13. Louis Napoleon sends message to Senate that the nation has manifested its wish for the re-establishment of the

LOUIS XVIII.
1755–1824.

CHARLES X.
1757–1836.

NAPOLEON I.
1769–1821.

LOUIS PHILIPPE.
1773–1850.

NAPOLEON III.
1808–1873.

RULERS OF FRANCE.

FRANÇOIS P. J. GREVY.
1813–1891.

M. F. S. CARNOT.
1837–1894.

MARSHAL MACMAHON.
1808–1893.

LOUIS A. THIERS.
1797–1877.

EMILE LOUBET.
Born 1838.

FELIX FAURE.
1841–1899.

PRESIDENTS OF FRANCE.

Empire, Nov. 4. On Nov. 7 the Senate proclaims him as Napoleon III. Corps Législatif announce result of plébiscite, showing immense majority in favour of the Empire, Dec. 1. French Empire recognised by British Government.
Death of the Duke of Wellington, Sept. 14.
Conference at Jerusalem for purpose of arranging rival claims to the Holy Places, Oct. 27.
Independence of the Transvaal recognised.
International Copyright Act between England and France.

1853.

Convention between British and Persian Governments, whereby Shah undertook not to interfere in internal affairs of Herat, Jan. 5.
Napoleon III. announces his engagement to Mdle. de Montijo, Jan. 22; marriage took place on 29th.
Renewed disturbances at Milan, Feb. 6.
Kaffir war ends.
Menschikoff presents ultimatum to the Porte, demanding protection for Orthodox religion, May 5. Nesselrode announced Russia's intention of occupying Principalities, June 1. The Russian troops crossed the Pruth, July 2. Porte protested.
Conference at Vienna at which Western Powers agree upon a note to be submitted to Russia and Turkey as a basis for settling differences, July 31.
Outbreak of cholera at Newcastle, Aug. 4. Appears in London on 11th.
Porte demanded evacuation of Principalities, Sept. 6. Tsar declares war against Turkey Nov. 1. First battle at Oltenitza, Nov. 4. Turks successful. Turks afterwards retire to Kalafat. Turkish fleet destroyed at Sinope, Nov. 30.
Charitable Trusts Act and Lunatic Asylums Act passed.
Compulsory Vaccination Act passed for England, and for Ireland and Scotland in 1863. Extended 1867.
Queen Victoria visited Ireland for the second time, in August.

1854.

Anglo-French fleet enters Black Sea, Jan. 3.
Independence of the Orange Free State declared, Jan. 30.
England and France present ultimatum to Russia. Reply refused, Feb. 27. Baltic Fleet leaves Spithead, March 11. War declared, March 27.
Opening of main line of great Indian canal, April 8.
Insurrection in Madrid, ending in flight of Ministry, July 17.
King of Denmark proclaims a new Constitution, July 29.
Surrender of Bomarsund to allied fleets, Aug. 16. Allied troops land in Crimea, Sept. 14. Battle of the Alma, Sept. 20. Russians sink seven warships at entrance to Sevastopol harbour, Sept. 23. Battle of Balaclava, Oct. 25. Battle of Inkerman, Nov. 5. Miss Nightingale lands at Scutari, Nov. 6.
Treaty of alliance between England, France and Austria, Dec. 2.
Corrupt Practices Prevention Act passed.
20,000 deaths from cholera in England.

1855.

Retirement of Lord J. Russell from the Ministry, Jan. 23. Earl of Aberdeen resigned, Feb. 1. Lord Palmerston premier, Feb. 7.
Sardinia joins alliance of Western Powers against Russia, Jan. 26, and declares war, Mar. 4. Russians defeated by Omar Pasha at Eupatoria, Feb. 17. Death of Tsar Nicholas, March 2. Assembling of conference at Vienna to arrange basis of negotiations, March 15. Closed, March 21. Conference fruitless.
Capture of Kertch by Allies, May 27. French capture Mamelon, June 7. Unsuccessful attack on Redan and Malakoff, June 18. Battle of the Tchernaya, Aug. 16. Russians retreat from Sebastopol, Sept. 8. Allies enter. Surrender of Kars to Russians, Nov. 28.
Act for limiting the liability of shareholders in joint stock companies passed, Aug. 14.
A Bill for the Abolition of Church Rates passed the House of Commons by 221 to 178, but was rejected by the House of Lords.
Limited Liability Act passed.

1856.

Destruction of Sebastopol docks, Feb. 1. Protocol signed at Vienna, plenipotentiaries to assemble at Paris. Opening of Peace Conference in Paris, Feb. 26. Treaty signed, March 30. Peace rejoicings and illuminations, May 29. British evacuate Crimea, July 12.
Victoria Cross instituted, Feb. 5.
Annexation of Oude, Feb. 7.
Death of Heine, Feb. 17.
Quebec made the seat of the Canadian government, April 17.
Alexander II. grants political amnesty to Poles, May 27. He is crowned at Moscow, Sept. 7.
Prussia makes unsuccessful attempt to get her authority recognised in Republic of Neufchatel, Sept. 3.
Constitution of 1845 re-established in Spain, Sept. 16.
Herat taken by Persians. Leads to rupture with England, Oct. 13. Hostilities declared, Nov. 1. Karrack occupied by British, Dec. Bushire captured.
British and French ministers withdraw from Naples, Oct. 28.
War with China renewed.
Dispute with United States on enlistment question.
An attempt by the Government to establish life peerages defeated by the strenuous opposition of the House of Lords.
The National Portrait Gallery established.
Dr. Livingstone returned to England, after sixteen years' absence.
Oxford and Cambridge University Reform Acts passed.
Grote's "History of Greece" finished.
First volume of Froud's "History of England" published.

1857.

Persians defeated by British at Khoosah, Feb. 8. Peace signed, March 4.
Indian Mutiny begins, March.
Treaty with Denmark for abolition of Sound dues, March 14.
Death of Alfred de Musset, May 2.
Delhi seized by mutineers, May 20. Mutiny breaks out at Lucknow, May 10. Massacre of Cawnpore, July 15. Recapture of Delhi. Sept. 20. First relief of Lucknow, by Havelock, Sept. 25. Final relief of Lucknow, Nov. 17.
Attempt to launch the *Great Eastern*, Nov. 3.
Capture of Canton by British and French, Dec. 29.
Court of Divorce and Court of Probate established.
Publication of the first volume of Buckle's "History of Civilisation."

1858.

Marriage of the Princess Royal, Jan. 25.
Bill for transferring Indian Government to the Crown, Feb. 12. Passed, Aug. 2. Lord Derby succeeds.
Lord Palmerston resigns, Feb. 19.
Lucknow retaken from the Sepoys, March.
Massacre of Europeans at Yeddo, May 19. Bombardment of Yeddo by British, July 23. Treaty signed on Aug. 12.
Chinese forts at the mouth of the Peiho taken by British and French, May 20. Treaty of peace with China completed at Tientsin, June 26.
Capture of Gwalior by Sir Hugh Rose, June 19.
Jewish Disabilities Bill passed, July 12.

Final suppression of Indian Mutiny, Dec. 20.
Commercial treaty concluded with Russia, Dec. 31.
Property qualification for M.P.'s abolished.
First Atlantic telegraph laid, but communication soon ceased.

1859.

Napoleon III. makes speech to Austrian Ambassador foreshadowing rupture over Italian question, Jan. 1. French army leaves Paris to help Sardinians, April 23. Austrians commence hostilities by crossing the Ticino, April 26. Napoleon III. announces war with Austria, May 3. First engagement between French and Austrians at Montebello, May 20. Tuscany joins France and Sardinia, May 25. Austrians defeated at Palestro, May 31. Battle of Magenta, June 4.
Earl Derby resigned, June 11. Unsuccessful attempt made by Earl Granville to form a Government. Lord Palmerston again became Premier, with Lord John Russell Foreign Secretary, June 18.
Diplomatic relations resumed with Naples by England and France, June 14.
Austrians defeated at Solferino, June 24. Armistice agreed upon, July 7. Peace preliminaries signed on 11th.
Capture of Schamyl by the Russians, Aug. 26.
Anti-slavery outbreak under John Brown at Harper's Ferry, Oct. 16.
Spain declares war against Morocco, Oct. 22.
An attack in the river Pei-ho on a British embassy to Pekin leads to war once more with China.
Volunteer corps formed by proclamation. The National Rifle Association instituted, Nov. 16.

1860.

General Prim defeats Moors at Castillejos, Jan.
British send ultimatum to Chinese Government. Terms rejected, March 8. Pekin taken by British and French, Dec. 16.
Signature of treaty of annexation of Savoy and Nice to France, March 24.
Austria protests against annexation of Italian Duchies to new kingdom of Italy, March 25.
Prussia protests against French annexation of Savoy, March 27. Savoy and Nice vote in favour of annexation to France, April 23.
Revolutionary outbreak at Palermo and Messina, April 4.
Prussian Chambers resolve to aid Schleswig-Holsteiners, May 4.
Garibaldi sails from Genoa with 2000 men to assist Sicilian insurrection, May 5. Attacks Palermo, May 27. Francis II. promises reform for Sicily, June 26.
Garibaldi concludes a truce with the Neapolitans, who agree to evacuate Sicily, July 28. Accepts title of Dictator of the Two Sicilies, Aug. 23. King of Naples leaves the capital for Gaeta, Sept. 6. Victor Emmanuel proclaimed King of Italy at Naples, Sept. 9.
Abolition of passports in France, Dec. 16.
Commercial treaty arranged with France by the agency of Richard Cobden.
Review of 18,000 volunteers by the Queen in Hyde Park. June 23.
The Prince of Wales visited Canada and the United States.
The first iron-plated warship (the *Warrior*) built in England.
Publication of "Essays and Reviews," followed by numerous replies.

1861.

Death of Frederick William IV. of Prussia, Jan. 1.
Secession of Mississippi from United States, Jan. 9. Other States followed. Southern States' delegates meet to agree upon a Constitution, Feb. 8. Jefferson Davis was inaugurated as President of Confederate States, Feb. 18.
Surrender of Gaeta to Sardinians, Feb. 13.
Alexander II. issues a decree emancipating the Russian serfs, March 3. 23,000,000 freed.
Outbreak at Warsaw. Poland declared in a state of siege, Oct. 14. Suppressed.
Surrender of Charleston to Confederates, April 13. Federals defeated at Bull Run, July 21.
Mexican Convention between Great Britain, France and Spain, Oct. 31. Expedition afterwards despatched.
Seizure of Confederate Commissioners on board the *Trent* by Federals, Nov. 8. Afterwards delivered up.
Death of the Prince Consort, Dec. 14.
The population, April 8, was 29,321,288.
Post Office Savings Banks established.
Bankruptcy and Insolvency Act passed, abolishing the difference between trader and non-trader, &c. Amended in 1868.
Repeal of the Paper Duty, giving a great impulse to popular literature.

1862.

Taepings attack Shanghai, March 1. Repulsed.
Death of Nesselrode, March 23.
Conference of Orizaba resulting in withdrawal of England and Spain from Mexican Expedition, April 9.
An embassy from Japan arrives in England, April 30.
United States decrees abolition of slavery in all the territories of the Union, June 9.
Escape of the screw-steamer *Alabama* from Liverpool, July 29.
Macao ceded to Portugal, Aug. 13.
Garibaldi wounded at Aspromonte, Aug. 29.
Federals defeated a second time at Bull Run, Aug. 30.
Insurrection in Greece against King Otho, who embarks on a British man of war, Oct. 22. Austria declares in favour of the King.
The Second Great International Exhibition opened by the Duke of Cambridge, May 1; closed Nov. 1. Total visitors 6,117,450.
Mr. Peabody gave £150,000 for the improvement of the dwellings of the poor in London; the amount afterwards made up to half a million.
Sources of the Nile discovered by Grant and Speke.
Publication of a work on "The Pentateuch" by Dr. Colenso, Bishop of Natal; the book denounced by the Bishops in Convocation, in the following year.
Spencer's "Synthetic Philosophy" published.

1863.

Lincoln issues proclamation declaring that all slaves in the Confederate States are free, Jan. 1.
Metropolitan Railway opened, Jan. 9.
Insurrection in Poland. Jan. 14 Russia and Prussia conclude a treaty for united action against insurgents, Feb. 8. Microslawski the Polish leader defeated by the Russians, Feb. 23.
Marriage of the Prince of Wales and Princess Alexandra, March 10.
Prussian ports blockaded by Denmark, May 15; and bombardment of Duppel commenced.
French army enters Puebla, March 31.
Commencement of series of battles at Chancellorsville. Jackson killed, April 2.
Capture of Herat by Mahomet Khan, May 26.
Japanese close their ports against foreign trade, June 24.
Commencement of series of engagements at Gettyburg, July 1.
Mexicans invite Archduke Ferdinand Maximilian to accept the throne, July 10.
English fleet enters Bay of Kagosima to demand satisfaction from Prince of Satsuma. Batteries and part of city destroyed, Aug. 11.
Congress of German sovereigns at Frankfort. King of Prussia refuses to attend, Aug. 17.
Prince of Augustenburg proclaimed Duke of Schleswig-

HUMBERT I., KING OF ITALY.
1844–1900.

CHARLES ALBERT, KING OF SARDINIA.
1798–1849.

VICTOR EMMANUEL II., KING OF ITALY.
BORN 1869.

VICTOR EMMANUEL I., KING OF ITALY.
1820–1878.

FRANCIS I., EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA.
1768–1835.

FRANCIS JOSEPH, EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA AND KING OF HUNGARY.
BORN 1830.

ITALIAN AND AUSTRIAN SOVEREIGNS.

Holstein, Dec. 27. Earl Russell addresses a note to Federal Diet demanding a Conference of Powers to settle dispute between Germany and Denmark, Dec. 31.
Opening of the Metropolitan Underground Railway.
Volunteer Forces Regulation Act passed.
Church Congress held at Manchester, the first of a series of such gatherings.

1864.

Prince Albert Victor born, Jan. 8.
Austro-Prussian army invades Holstein, Jan. 21; occupies North Schleswig, Feb. 10.
Unsuccessful expedition against King of Ashantee, Feb. 12.
Garibaldi visits England in April, and is enthusiastically received.
Federal troops repulsed at Richmond, March 1.
Bombardment of Düppel begins, March 15; surrenders, April 18.
Indecisive battle of Wilderness, May 3. War continues.
Emperor Maximilian lands at Vera Cruz, May 28.
Prussians capture island of Alsen, June 29.
Nanking taken by Imperialists, and Taeping rebellion suppressed, July 19.
Truce between Germany and Denmark, July 20. Peace terms arranged, Aug. 1.
Bombardment of Shimonoseki by Anglo-French and Dutch fleets, Sept. 1.
The Ionian Islands ceded to Greece, June 1.
Act for Regulating the Closing of Public Houses and Refreshment Houses.
Bishop Colenso deposed by the Bishop of Capetown, whose proceedings were afterwards declared null and void by the Privy Council.
"Oxford declaration" on eternal punishment signed by a large number of the clergy, and sent to the Archbishop of Canterbury.

1865.

Hampton Roads Conference between Lincoln and Confederate Commissioners, Feb. 3. No result.
Victor Emmanuel enters Florence, March 9.
Confederates retire from Richmond, April 2. Grant takes possession. War ends, April 7. Lincoln assassinated, April 14.
Convention of Gastein dividing Danish duchies between Prussia and Austria, Aug. 14. Earl Russell condemns the Convention.
Austrian Emperor suspends Constitution preparatory to bringing Hungarian and Croatian Diets within the fundamental law, Sept. 21.
Emperor of Mexico issues proclamation against Republicans, Oct. 5. United States Government thereupon condemns Imperialist policy.
Negro outbreak in Jamaica, leading to suspension of Governor, Oct. 7. Great agitation followed in England.
Death of Lord Palmerston. Administration reconstructed by Earl Russell, Oct. 18.
The Fenian conspiracy discovered in Ireland. Arrests in Dublin, Cork, &c.
Agitation in the country for Parliamentary Reform.
Outbreak of cattle plague in June; a Royal Commission met on the subject in October.
Visit of the English fleet to Cherbourg, and of the French to Portsmouth.
Union Chargeability Act passed, for the better distribution of charges for the relief of the poor.
The Clerical Subscription Act passed, July.
Second attempt to lay an Atlantic Telegraph cable, which failed after 1200 miles had been paid out.
Salvation Army founded.

1866.

Suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act in Ireland, Feb. 17.
Revolution at Bucharest. Prince Couza compelled to abdicate, Feb. 22.
Distribution of the Albert Medal, March 7.
Prussia circularises German States, accusing Austria of violating Treaty of Gastein, and asking them to define their action in case of a struggle, March 24. Prussia and Italy form offensive and defensive alliance, March 27. Austria on 31st disclaims hostile intentions. Prussia replying to Austria says that she will disarm when Austria sets the example, April 25.
Announcement of French withdrawal from Mexico, April 5.
Commercial crisis. Stoppage of Overend and Gurney's Bank, May 10. Known as "Black Friday," May 11. Bank of England rate of discount, 10 per cent., May 12. Suspension of the Bank Charter Act.
Russian troops defeat Ameer of Bokhara, May 20.
England, France and Russia invite Austria, Prussia, Italy and the German Diet to a Conference on the state of Europe, May 25. Proposal abandoned, June 5. Diplomatic relations cease between Prussia and Austria, June 12. Prussian armies enter Saxony and Hanover, June 15. Austria declares her intention to help Saxony. Italy declares war against Austria, June 20. Battle of Custozza ensues. Italians defeated. Austria decisively beaten at Königgrätz, July 3. Italian fleet defeated at Lissa, July 20. Armistice agreed upon between Prussia and Austria, July 22. Treaty of Prague signed, Aug. 23.
Napoleon III. offers Venetia to Italy, Aug. 11. Treaty of peace between Austria and Italy signed at Vienna, Sept. 3.
Unsuccessful attempt made by Earl Russell's Ministry to pass a Reform Bill. The Earl of Derby forms a Government for the third time.
Public Health Act, for removal of nuisances, &c.
A third Atlantic cable laid successfully, and the cable of 1865 recovered and completed.

1867.

Schleswig-Holstein formally incorporated with Prussia, Jan. 24.
Treaty between States of new North German Confederation signed at Berlin, Feb. 8.
French troops leave Mexico, March 16.
Secret treaties of 1866 between Prussia and South German States published, March 19.
Paris Exhibition opened by the Emperor, April 1.
Reform meetings in Hyde Park, May 6.
Treaty for evacuation of Luxembourg by Prussians signed in London, May 11.
Emperor of Austria crowned King of Hungary at Pesth, June 8.
Emperor Maximilian shot at Queretaro, June 19. The following day the City of Mexico surrendered to the Juarists.
Alaska sold to the United States for 7,200,000 dollars, June 20.
The Sultan visits England, July 12.
New Reform Act passed by the Derby-Disraeli Ministry, Aug. 15.
Mont Cenis Summit Railway traversed over its whole length, Aug. 21.
Fight between Garibaldian and Papal troops at Monte Libretto, Oct. 13. Insurrectionary movement in Rome, Oct. 22. Garibaldi defeated the Papal troops at Monte Rotondo, Oct. 26. The French troops enter Rome, Oct. 30. Garibaldi arrested, Nov. 4. The French flag at Rome was formally lowered, Dec. 1.

1868.

Disturbances in Japan, Jan. 16. Princes Satsuma, Chorsy, and Sovo, seizing the Mikado and taking possession of Yeddo.
Resignation of Lord Derby, Feb. 25. Disraeli becomes Premier for the first time.

Irish Church resolutions adopted, April.
Capture of Magdala and death of Theodore, April 13. Expedition returns, April 18.
Marriage of Prince Humbert of Italy to Princess Margherita of Savoy, April 20.
Passage of Bill confining capital punishment to interior of prisons, May 11.
Russians occupy Samarkand, May 14.
Servian elections show majority in favour of Prince Milan, June 24. Proclaimed, July 2.
Irish and Scotch Reform Bills passed, July 13.
Further insurrectionary movements in Spain, Aug. 3. Continued disturbances till Sept. 29, when Queen fled to France.
Announcement of Government's intention to set Indian frontier in a state of defence, as a reply to Russia's successes in Central Asia, Sept. 6.
Provisional Government at Madrid depose Queen Isabella, Oct. 1. New Government recognised by the Powers, Oct. 25.
Disraeli Ministry resigns, Dec. 2. Mr. Gladstone forms his first administration.
Insurrection at Cadiz. Suppressed, Dec. 5.
Rupture of diplomatic relations between Turkey and Greece, Dec. 18. Conference summoned at Paris.
Diamond Fields dispute with Orange Free State.
Opening of Thames Embankment between Temple and Westminster Bridge.
Compulsory church rates abolished.

1869.

Conference at Paris regarding Greco-Turkish dispute, Jan. 9. Greece to undertake not to encourage insurrections in Turkey.
Alabama Convention signed in London, Jan. 14. Rejected by U.S. Senate, April 13.
Cubans rise against Spain, Jan. 22.
Rising in Algeria against the French, Feb. 1.
Mr. Gladstone introduces Irish Church Disestablishment Bill, March 1. Received royal assent, July 26.
Partial opening of Suez Canal, March 18. Formally opened, Nov. 17.
Hudson's Bay Company agree to cede their territorial rights to Canada, receiving £300,000 compensation, April 9.
New Spanish Constitution promulgated, June 16. Regency established, June 6.
Visit of Viceroy of Egypt, June 22.
Married Women's Property Bill read a third time, July 21.
Public Schools Act passed, July 31.
French Senate adopts Senatus Consultum modifying the Constitution, Sept. 6.
The electric telegraphs transferred to Government management.

1870.

Napoleon III. expresses himself as assured of peace, Jan. 1.
Peace Preservation (Ireland) Bill passed, March 26.
Death of Charles Dickens, June 9.
Queen Isabella of Spain signs her abdication at Paris, in favour of her son, June 25. The Spanish Ministry decide to propose Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen as candidate for the throne, July 4. France protests. Candidature withdrawn, July 12. On July 13 occurred the alleged insult of the French ambassador by King William.
War against Prussia announced by the Emperor, July 15. Declaration delivered at Berlin, July 19. French take Saarbruck, Aug. 2. Capitulation of Sedan, Sept. 2. Metz surrenders, Oct. 27.
Papal Infallibility Decree promulgated, July 18.
Irish Land Bill receives royal assent, Aug. 1.
Elementary Education Act passed, Aug. 9.
Mazzini arrested by the Italian Government, Aug. 14.
Revolution in Paris, Sept. 4. Republic officially proclaimed, Sept. 5.
Italian troops enter Rome, Sept. 20.
Russia denounces Treaty of Paris, Oct. 31.
Bavaria enters the German Confederation, Nov. 23.
Completion of the Mont Cenis Tunnel, Dec. 25.
Red River Expedition.
Antiseptic surgery introduced by Sir Thomas Lister.

1871.

Irish Church Disestablishment Act comes in force, Jan. 1.
King Amadeus enters Madrid, Jan. 2.
Black Sea Conference meets. Declares that no Power can liberate itself from treaty engagements, Jan. 17. Black Sea Clauses abrogated by Treaty, Mar. 31.
Proclamation of King William as German Emperor at Versailles, Jan 18. Surrender of Paris, Jan. 28. Preliminaries of peace signed, Feb. 26. Treaty of Frankfort, May 10.
Revolutionary outbreak in Paris, March 18. Commune proclaimed, March 28. Communists destroy Vendôme column, May 16. Versaillese enter Paris, May 21.
Tichborne trial begins, May 11.
Third International Exhibition opened, May 1; closed Sept. 30.
Victor Emanuel enters Rome as his new capital, July 2.
Ballot Bill read a third time, Aug. 8.
Insurrection in City of Mexico. Insurgents shot, Oct. 2.
Fenian raid into Canada under O'Neill, Oct. 16.
Mr. H. M. Stanley discovers Livingstone at Ujiji, Nov. 10.
Dangerous illness of the Prince of Wales, Nov. 22.
New Local Government Board substituted for the Poor Law Board.
Army Reform Bill rejected by the House of Lords, July 17. The purchase system abolished by royal warrant, July 20.
Marriage of the Princess Louise to the Marquis of Lorne.
Population of the United Kingdom, by the census taken April 3, 31,817,108.

1872.

Constantinople connected by rail with Europe, Jan. 16.
Assassination of Lord Mayo, Governor-General of India, Feb. 6.
Death of Mazzini at Pisa, March 10.
Carlist rising again breaks out under General Diaz de Ruda, April.
International Exhibition opened at South Kensington, April 27.
Ballot Bill passes House of Lords, June 26.
Great riots in Belfast begin, Aug. 16.
Conference at Berlin between German, Austrian, and Russian Emperors, Sept. 7.
Geneva Arbitration Court delivers judgment in *Alabama* case, Sept. 14. Great Britain pays 15,500,000 dollars.
Dispute with Russia regarding Afghan frontier, October.
Chalons evacuated by the Germans, Nov. 8.
Mutiny among Metropolitan Police, Nov. 16.
Bismarck's resignation of Prussian Ministry of State accepted, Dec. 21.

1873.

Death of Napoleon III., Jan. 9.
King Amadeus of Spain announces his intention to abdicate, Feb. 11. Republic founded.
Mr. Gladstone defeated on Irish Universities Bill, March 11. Resigns.
France declares protectorate over Annam, March 30.
Dutch declare war against Atchinese, April 26.
Vienna Exhibition opened, May 1.
Sultan of Zanzibar ratifies a treaty abolishing the Slave Trade, June 5.
Khiva taken by the Russians, June 10.

JAMES MADISON.
1751–1836.

JAMES MONROE.
1751–1831

THOMAS JEFFERSON.
1743–1826.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.
1767–1848.

ANDREW JACKSON.
1767–1845.

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES—I.

Ashanti War. British repulse Ashantis at Elmina, June 13. Expedition follows. Sir Garnet Wolseley defeats Ashantis, Oct. 27.
Shah visits London, June 18.
Emperor of China for the first time receives the foreign ambassadors in audience, June 29.
Resolution carried in House of Commons in favour of international arbitration, July 8.
Don Carlos re-enters Spain, and issues proclamation to his adherents, July 16. New Spanish Constitution promulgated, July 17.
Germans withdraw from Belfort, Aug. 2.
Blockade of the Gold Coast announced, Sept. 29.
Trial of Marshal Bazaine opened, Oct. 6. Sentenced to death, Dec. 10. Sentence commuted two days later by President MacMahon.
Shooting of crew of Virginius at Santiago, leading to diplomatic incident between Spain and United States, Nov. 7.

1874.

Revolution in Spain, Jan. 3. Military dictatorship established. Carthagena surrenders to Government troops. Insurgent Junta escapes, Jan. 11.
Battle of Amoaful in Ashanti, Jan. 31. Coomassie entered, Feb. 5. Peace follows.
Mr. Disraeli's Second Administration formed, Feb. 21.
Tichborne trial ended. Claimant sentenced to fourteen years' penal servitude, Feb. 28.
Carlists bombard Bilbao, March 1. Town relieved, May 2. Marshal Concha repulsed and killed by Carlists at Estella, June 28. Alfonso, son of ex-Queen Isabella, proclaimed King of Spain by army, Dec. 30.
Tsar visits England, May 13.
Butt's Home Rule motion introduced, June 30. Defeated, July 2.
Fiji Islands ceded to Great Britain, Sept. 30.
Bismarck's resignation refused by German Emperor, Dec. 17.
Famine in India.

1875.

King Alfonso enters Madrid, Jan. 6.
Mr. Gladstone announces his retirement from the Liberal party, Jan. 30.
Russian judicial institutions extended to Poland, March 3.
Revivalist meetings begun at Agricultural Hall, March 9.
New channel of the Danube opened for navigation, May 31.
Insurrection in Herzegovina, ultimately resulting in opening of whole Eastern question, July 1.
Captain Webb swims the Channel in 21¾ hours, Aug. 24.
Russia annexes Northern half of Khokand, Oct. 7.
Malay rising at Perak, Nov. 1. Suppressed in December.
Purchase by Great Britain from the Khedive of 177,000 shares in the Suez Canal, Nov. 25. £4,000,000 paid.
Prince of Wales visits India.
Memorial Hall, Farringdon Street, founded.

1876.

Insurgents defeat Turks in Herzegovina, Jan. 18. British Government resolve to support Andrassy note. Note communicated to the Porte, Jan. 31. Porte accepts its leading points.
Disraeli obtains leave to bring in Royal Titles Bill, conferring title of Empress of India upon the Queen, Feb. 17.
Collapse of the Carlist war, Feb. 28. Don Carlos arrives in London, March 4. Alfonso XII. makes triumphal entry into Madrid, March 20.
Bulgarian insurrection breaks out, May 1. Revelations concerning Bulgarian atrocities published in England, June 23. Agitation follows.
Mussulman riot at Salonica, resulting in murder of French and German consuls, May 6.
Deposition of Sultan Abdul Aziz, May 30. Murad V. proclaimed. Abdul Aziz commits suicide, June 4.
General Custer's force annihilated in fight with Indians, June 25.
Prince Milan leaves Belgrade for the frontier, June 29. The Montenegrins join Servia and declare war, June 30. Servians defeated at Sienitza, July 6. Servians again defeated at Izvor, July 18. Moukhtar Pasha gained another victory in Herzegovina, but is defeated, July 28. Milan requests mediation, Aug. 24. Servians defeated at Adrowetz, Sept. 1.
Disraeli becomes Earl of Beaconsfield, Aug. 12.
Murad V. deposed, Aug. 31. Abdul Hamid II. proclaimed.
British Government proposes armistice to Turkey, Sept. 1. Milan declared King of Servia, Sept. 16. Russia presents ultimatum to the Porte, demanding an armistice, Oct. 30. Turkey agrees to an eight weeks' armistice, Nov. 1.
Mexican insurrection under Diaz, who proclaims himself Provisional President, Nov. 30.
National conference on Eastern Question at St. James's Hall, Dec. 8. Constantinople conference met, Dec. 23.
Promulgation of Ottoman Constitution, Dec. 23.

1877.

Queen proclaimed Empress of India, Jan. 1.
Constantinople conference ends, Turkish Government rejecting proposals of the Powers, Jan. 20. Peace concluded between Turkey and Servia, Feb. 27.
First Turkish Parliament opened by the Sultan, March 19.
Transvaal annexed by proclamation, April 12.
Convention between Russia and Roumania, allowing passage of Russian troops through Roumanian territory, April 16. Russia declares war, April 24. Russians cross the Danube, June 22. Osman enters Plevna, July 14. Russians take Nikopolis, July 16. Occupy Schipka Pass, July 19. First battle of Plevna, July 20. Surrender of Plevna, Dec. 10. Porte applies to Powers for mediation, Dec. 12. Servians again declare war against Turkey, Dec. 14.
Civil war in Japan ends, territorial princes recognising paramountcy of Mikado, May 11.
Death of M. Thiers, Sept.
Phonograph invented by Edison.

1878.

Turkish army defeated and captured in the Schipka, Jan. 10. Russians occupy Adrianople, Jan. 20. British fleet enters the Dardanelles, but returns to Besika Bay, Jan. 25. Armistice convention signed at Adrianople, Jan. 31.
Chancellor of Exchequer applies for £6,000,000 for preparing armaments, Jan. 28.
Greeks advance into Thessaly, Feb. 3. Austrian Government invites the Powers to a conference at Vienna, Feb. 4. Russians advance on Constantinople, Feb. 7.
Death of Pius IX., Feb. 7. Cardinal Pecci elected Pope as Leo XIII., Feb. 20.
British fleet again passes the Dardanelles, Feb. 13. Treaty of San Stefano signed, March 3.
Lord Derby resigns ministry of Foreign Affairs, March 28. Lord Salisbury appointed.
Paris Exhibition opens, May 1.
Kaffir rebellion ends, June 12.
Gen. Stoletieff's mission to Cabul, June, leads to quarrel with Afghans. War ensues.
Meeting of Berlin Congress, June 13. Closes, July 13.
Cyprus ceded to Great Britain, July 11.
Austrians occupy Bosnia, Aug. 3.

1879.

General Stewart enters Kandahar, Jan. 9.
Zulu War—Lord Chelmsford crosses border, Jan. 11.

ULYSSES S. GRANT.
1822–1885.

BENJAMIN HARRISON.
Born 1833.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.
1809–1865.

GROVER CLEVELAND.
Born 1837.

WILLIAM McKINLEY.
Born 1843.

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.—II.

British disaster at Isandlana, Jan. 22. Zulus defeated at Ulundi, July 4. Cetewayo captured, Sept. 28. The Prince Imperial of France killed by Zulus, June 1.
Alexander of Battenberg elected Prince of Bulgaria, April 29.
Death of Isaac Butt, May 5.
Treaty of Gundamuk signed by Yakoob Khan and Major Cavagnari, May 26.
Ismail Pasha deposed by the Sultan, June 26.
Hamburg and Bremen refuse to renounce their rights as free ports, July 17.
Revolt at Cabul, followed by murder of Sir Louis Cavagnari. Battle of Charasiab, Oct. 6. Roberts enters Cabul, Sept. 3.
Secocoeni's stronghold captured by Sir Garnet Wolseley, Nov. 29.
Nihilist outrages in Russia.
Parnell agitation against unfair rents in Ireland.

1880.

Attempt on the life of the Tsar, Feb. 17.
German Emperor refuses to accept Bismarck's resignation, April 8.
Mr. Gladstone's second Administration formed, April 28.
Oberammagau Passion Play opens, May 16.
Trial of Russian Nihilists concerned in attempt on Tsar's life, May 18.
Plenipotentiaries meet in Berlin to determine Greek frontier, June 10.
French annex Tahiti, June 29.
Abdur Rahman Khan recognised as Ameer, July 22. Battle of Maiwand, British reverse, July 27. Battle of Candahar, Ayoob Khan defeated, Sept. 1.
Sir Hercules Robinson appointed Governor of the Cape, Aug. 6.
Cologne cathedral completed, Oct. 15.
Dulcigno captured by Dervish Pasha, Nov. 23.
Outbreak of Transvaal war, British defeat at Bronkhorstspruit, Dec. 20. South African Republic proclaimed by Kruger, Joubert and Pretorious, Dec. 30.
Death of George Eliot, Dec. 22.
Land League agitation in Ireland, 7788 agrarian outrages reported in this year.
Women admitted to degrees in London University.

1881.

Turkoman war; Skobeleff announces capture of Geok Tepe, Jan. 24.
Battle of Laing's Nek, Colley repulsed, Jan. 26. Battle of Majuba Hill, Feb. 27. Armistice agreed upon, March 6. Convention of Pretoria signed, Aug. 3.
Death of Carlyle, Feb. 4.
Assassination of the Tsar, Alexander II., March 13.
Population of United Kingdom found to be 35,246,562, April 3.
Death of Lord Beaconsfield, April 19.
Evacuation of Candahar begun, April 21.
Tunis taken by the French, May 12.
Greek Frontier Convention signed, May 26.
Assassination of President Garfield, July 2.
Irish Land Bill passes House of Lords, Aug. 16.
Military revolt at Cairo under Arabi Pasha, Sept. 9.
Arrest of Mr. Parnell, Oct. 13. Land League agitation continues.

1882.

Servia proclaimed a kingdom, March 6.
Death of Longfellow, March 24.
French capture Hanoi, April 25.
Assassination of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke in the Phœnix Park, Dublin, May 6.
Prevention of Crime Bill introduced into the House of Commons, May 11.
New Irish Land Bill introduced, May 15.
Anglo-French fleet sails from Suda for Alexandria. The forts were bombarded and destroyed, July 4. First Army Reserves called out, July 25. Battle of Tel el Kebir, Sept. 13. Capture of Cairo and surrender of Arabi, Sept. 14.
Death of Garibaldi at Caprera, June 2.
Death of General Skobeleff, July 7.
New Law Courts opened by the Queen, Dec. 4.
Death of Gambetta, Dec. 31.
Irish agrarian agitation continues.
Society for Psychical Research founded.

1883.

Married Woman's Property Act came into operation, Jan. 1.
Prince Napoleon arrested in Paris for issuing seditious manifesto, Jan. 16.
French commence hostilities in Madagascar, May 16. They bombard and capture Tamatave, June 11.
Coronation of Alexander III., May 27.
New Parcels Post came into operation, Aug. 1.
French success in Annam. Hue River forts taken, Aug. 26.
Death of Turgenieff, Sept. 3.
Riot in Canton, Sept. 11. European quarter sacked.
Hicks Pasha's army defeated and annihilated by the Mahdists, Nov. 3.
Continuance of agrarian agitation in Ireland.

1884.

General Gordon sent to Egypt, Jan. 18.
Russia acquires Merv, Jan. 18. Negotiations as to Afghan frontier follow.
Baker Pasha defeated by the Arabs, Feb. 4. Gordon reaches Khartoum, Feb. 18. Tokar surrenders to Mahdists, Feb. 22. Battle of El Teb, Feb. 29. Siege of Khartoum begins, March 13. Fall of Berber, May 23.
Commission to inquire into Housing of Working Classes appointed, Feb. 23.
Chinese Government sanctions introduction of railways, June 20.
Conference of Powers on Egyptian Finance meets in Soudan, June 28.
Luderitz territory at Angra Pequena placed under protection of Germany, Aug. 7.
French bombard Foo Chow, Aug. 23.
Proclamation announcing British Protectorate over Southern New Guinea, Oct. 10.
New Reform Bill passed, extending household and lodger suffrage, Dec. 6.

1885.

Soudan War. British victory at Abu Klea, Jan. 17. Fall of Khartoum and death of Gordon, Jan. 26. The Mahdi, Mohammed Achmed died, June 29. Kassala surrenders, Aug. 30.
Italian flag raised at Massowah, Feb. 8.
Revolt in Canada under Louis Riel, March 23. Riel captured, May 15; and hanged, Nov. 16.
General Komaroff routs Afghans near Penjdeh, March 20. Incident leads to serious quarrel with Russia.
Peace concluded between France and China, April 50.
Antwerp Exhibition opened, May 2.
Channel Tunnel Bill rejected by the House of Commons, May 12.
Death of Victor Hugo, May 22.
Defeat of the Government, June 8. Mr. Gladstone resigns.
Criminal Law Amendment Bill passed, Aug. 10.
Revolution in Eastern Roumelia. Union proclaimed with Bulgaria, Sept. 18.
Burmese war breaks out, Nov. 12. British proclamation announcing dethronement of King Theebaw. Theebaw surrenders, Nov. 29.

Servia declares war against Bulgaria, Nov. 14. Bulgarians victorious. Hostilities cease, Nov. 30.
Serious outbreak of cholera in Spain.
Home Rule for Ireland. Rumours of changed Liberal intentions gained currency towards the end of the year.

1886.

Upper Burmah annexed by proclamation, Jan. 1. Fighting continues.
Fall of the Salisbury Ministry, Jan. 26. Mr. Gladstone succeeds.
Great "Unemployed" Demonstration in Trafalgar Square leading to rioting, Feb. 8.
Russians formally enter Penjdeh and annex district, Feb. 13.
Peace signed between Servia and Bulgaria, March 1.
Serious socialist disturbances in Belgium, March 18.
First Home Rule Bill introduced, April 8. Read a second time, May 10. Government defeated, June 7. Lord Salisbury's Second Administration formed, July 26.
Irish Land Purchase Bill introduced, April 16.
British evacuate Suakin, May 16.
Posthumous birth of the King of Spain, Alfonso XIII., May 17.
Serious riots break out in Belfast, June 4.
French Senate passes Bill expelling Royalist Pretenders, June 22.
Transcaspian railway completed to Merv, July 20.
Revolution in Bulgaria, Aug. 21. Prince Alexander deposed.
Military Revolt in Madrid, Sept. 19. Suppressed.
"Plan of Campaign" founded, Oct. 21. Proclaimed as illegal, Dec. 18.

1887.

Death of the Earl of Iddesleigh, Jan. 12.
Serious earthquake in Southern Europe, Feb. 23. 20,000 persons rendered homeless.
Colonial Conference meets, April 4. Thirty-seven Colonies represented.
"Parnellism and Crime" published by the *Times*, March and April.
Kiel Canal inaugurated, June 3.
Jubilee Day, June 21.
Imperial Institute founded, July 4.
Prince Ferdinand of Coburg elected Prince of Bulgaria, July 7.
Severe drought in England, July.
Irish Coercion Bill passed, July 18. Eighteen counties proclaimed, July 23.
New Irish Land Bill passed, Aug. 23.
Anglo-Russian Protocol defining Afghan frontier signed, July 22.
Irish National League suppressed by proclamation, Sept. 20.
Deposition of Malietoa, King of Samoa, by Germany announced. Great Britain and the United States refuse to recognise act.
Conventions respecting neutralisation of Suez Canal and as to New Hebrides signed at Paris, Oct. 24.
Manchester Ship Canal begun, Nov. 11.
Decoration Scandal in France, Nov. M. Grévy resigns, Dec. 2.
Triple Alliance announced, Nov. 5.
Great Trafalgar Square Riots, Nov. 13.
Annexation of Quetta district in Beloochestan.

1888.

Russian Universities closed for insubordination, Jan.
Death of Sir Henry Maine, Feb. 3.
Sikkim Expedition. British force captures Lingtum Fort, May 23. Tibetans defeated at Gnatong. Fighting ends in September.
Death of the German Emperor, William I., March 9.
National Debt Conversion Bill passed, March 23.
General Boulanger dismissed from the army, March 15. Tried, March 26. Elections in his favour, Aug. 19.
Death of Matthew Arnold, April 15.
Pope condemns Plan of Campaign, April 20.
Quinquennial Parliaments established in Germany, June 7.
Death of the German Emperor Frederick, June 15. William II. succeeds.
Mr. Parnell denounces the *Times*' forged letters in Parliament, July 6.
Franco-Italian dispute concerning Massowah, August.
Local Government Act passed, Aug. 13.
Parnell Commission Bill passed, Aug. 13. Meets Sept. 17. Report published, Feb. 13, 1890.
Black Mountain Expedition, Sept. Successful.
Charter granted to British East African company, Sept. 7.
Savage Islands annexed, Oct. 3.
King Milan of Servia divorces Queen Natalie, Oct. 24.
Mr. Harrison elected President of United States, Nov. 5.
New Irish Land Purchase Bill passed, Dec. 6.
Annexation of Sarawak by Great Britain.
Whitechapel murders create a sensation.
Zanzibar Coast blockaded by Germany and England, December.
British and Egyptians defeated Dervishes at Suakin, Dec. 20.

1889.

New Servian Constitution promulgated, Jan. 2. Milan abdicates, March 6.
First County Council elections, Jan. 17.
Boulangist victory in Paris, Jan. 27. Boulanger disappears, April 2, and issues manifesto from Brussels. Boulangists defeated at cantonal elections, July 25. Gen. Boulanger found guilty of plots against the State, Aug. 13. Boulangists again defeated at elections, Oct. 22.
New Japanese Constitution promulgated, Feb. 1.
Nicaraguan Canal Bill passed in America, Feb. 7.
Lincoln trial begins, Feb. 12.
Four new states admitted into the American Union, Feb. 20.
Dispute with Morocco, March 25. Settled.
Death of John Bright, March 27.
Eiffel Tower inaugurated, March 31.
New naval vote of £21,000,000, April 4.
Great rush to Oklahoma reserves, April 22. Serious rioting.
Samoan Congress meets at Berlin, April 29.
Celebration of meeting States-General in France, May 5. Exhibition opened, May 6.
Destruction of Johnstown in the Conemaugh Valley through the bursting of a dam, June 1; 6000 lives lost.
Delagoa Bay Railway seized by Portugal, June 28. Dispute between England and Portugal.
Shah visits England, July 1.
Visit of William II. of Germany to England, Aug. 1.
Dervishes defeated at Toski, Aug. 3.
Great dock strike, Aug. 13; 100,000 men strike.
Sultan of Zanzibar makes further anti-slavery concessions, Oct. 19.
British South Africa Company receives its charter, Oct. 30.
Revolution at Rio, Nov. 15. Emperor of Brazil deposed.
Death of Jefferson Davis, Dec. 3.
Death of Robert Browning, Dec. 12.

1890.

Expedition against Chins and Lushais, Jan.–Feb. Successful.
Serious dispute with Portugal over Major Serpa Pinto's action in East Africa. Ultimatum presented, Jan. 11. Portuguese Government yielded.

WASHINGTON IRVING.
1783–1859.

JOSEPH STORY.
1779–1845.

DAVID G. FARRAGUT.
1801–1870.

SAMUEL F. B. MORSE.
1791–1872.

HENRY CLAY.
1777–1852.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.
1706–1790.

JOHN MARSHALL.
1755–1835.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.
1743–1826.

RALPH W. EMERSON.
1803–1882.

H. W. LONGFELLOW.
1807–1882.

GEORGE PEABODY.
1795–1869.

NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.
1804–1864.

ROBERT E. LEE.
1807–1870.

HORACE MANN.
1796–1889.

PETER COOPER.
1791–1883.

ROBERT FULTON.
1765–1815.

JOHN A. AUDUBON.
1780–1851.

ELI WHITNEY.
1765–1825.

HENRY WARD BEECHER.
1813–1887.

JAMES KENT.
1763–1847.

FAMOUS AMERICANS OF THE CENTURY.

(American Hall of Fame, New York.)

Duc d'Orleans arrested in France, Feb. 7.
Report of Parnell Commission published, Feb. 13.
French war with Dahomey, February.
International Labour Conference meets at Berlin, March 15.
Resignation of Prince Bismarck, March 18.
Central American Governments determine to federate, April 10.
Anti-Jewish riot in Galicia, April 24.
Oberammergau representations begin, May 26.
Anti-Gambling League formed, June 15.
Anglo-German agreement signed establishing British Protectorate over Zanzibar and cession of Heligoland to Germany, July 1.
War in Central America; Guatemala invades Salvador, July 17. Peace signed, Aug. 28.
Revolution in Argentina, July 26. President Celman flees, returning on the 28th, and rebellion collapses. President Celman resigned, Aug. 6.
International Medical Congress meets at Berlin, Aug. 4.
Swaziland Convention ratified by Transvaal Volkraad, Aug. 8.
Revolution in Ticino, Aug. 12.
McKinley Tariff Bill passed, Oct. 1.
Anglo-Italian negotiations in regard to Upper Egypt break down, Oct. 11.
Dutch States General transfer Royal power to Council of State, Oct. 29. Queen Emma was appointed Regent, Nov. 14.
British Protectorate proclaimed at Zanzibar, Nov. 7.
O'Shea divorce case concluded, Oct. 17. Anti-Parnell agitation follows.

1891.

Persian-Afghan frontier dispute settled, Jan. 6.
Signor Crispi resigns, Jan. 31.
Dervishes defeated, followed by occupation of Tokar, Feb. 20.
Chilian revolt. Government troops defeated at Iquique, March 5.
Anglo-French agreement signed for settlement of Newfoundland Fisheries question by arbitration, March 11.
Manipur Expedition; battle near Thobal, April 6. Manipuris repulsed. New Rajah appointed.
Jews expelled from Moscow, April 22.
Death of Von Moltke, April 24.
Chilian Provisional Government ask Powers for recognition as belligerents, June 10.
Irish Land Purchase Bill read a third time, June 15. Bill passed House of Lords, July 14.
Behring Sea Agreement signed, June 15.
German Emperor visits England, July 4.
Visit of French Squadron to Cronstadt, July 23.
Chilian insurgents capture Valparaiso, Aug. 28. Flight of Balmaceda, who, on Sept. 19, committed suicide. Congressionalists captured Santiago, Oct. 31. War ends. Germany, France and Italy officially recognised new Government.
Russian volunteer ships allowed to pass through the Straits, Sept. 10.
News arrives of rebellion in Yang Tse Kiang, Sept. 23.
Suicide of General Boulanger, Sept. 30.
Death of Mr. Parnell, Oct. 6.
Revolution in Brazil, dictatorship proclaimed by Marshal Fonseca, Nov. 4. Navy revolts; dictatorship overthrown, Nov. 23. Gen. Peixoto succeeds.
Outbreak of hostilities near Gilgit announced, Dec. 11.
France breaks off diplomatic relations with Bulgaria owing to expulsion of a French journalist, Dec. 14.
Trans-Siberian Railway begun.

1892.

Influenza epidemic in England, January.
Great Russian Famine continues.
Death of the Khedive Tewfik. Abbas II. succeeds, Jan. 7.
Death of the Duke of Clarence, Jan. 14.
Death of Cardinal Manning.
Death of Mr. Spurgeon.
London County Council meets for the first time, March 15. Lord Rosebery elected chairman.
American House of Representatives pass Chinese Exclusion Bill, April 4.
Capture and destruction of Tamba in Sierra Leone, April 7.
Revolution in Honduras, May 18.
New Mexico and Arizona admitted as States of the American Union.
Germans defeated in Kilima Njaro, June 10.
Resignation of M. Vishnegradsky, Russian Minister of Finance, July 21.
General Election ends, July 29. Liberals and Nationalists, 355. Conservatives and Unionists, 315. Home Rule majority, 40.
Russian troops appear in the Pamir, Aug. 3. Dispute ends in appointment of a Commission to deliminate the frontier.
Rising against Ameer in Afghanistan.
Outbreak of cholera at Moscow, Aug. 5.
Numerous Anarchist outrages in Europe.
New Zealand Women's Franchise Bill passed by the Legislative Council, Sept. 23.
French victory in Dahomey, Oct. 4. French capture Abomey, Nov. 21.
Fighting in Venezuela, Oct. 6. Provisional Government formed by General Crespo, Oct. 10.
Death of Lord Tennyson.
French Ministry defeated, Nov. 28. Panama scandal develops.
Fight at Wady Halfa in the Soudan, Dec. 31.

1893.

Railway communication between Cape Town and Pretoria opened, Jan. 1. President Kruger re-elected, Jan. 27.
Trial of the Panama directors begun. Judgment delivered, Feb. 9.
Khedive's dismissal of his ministers leads to incident with Great Britain, Jan. 16. Crisis ends, Jan. 18.
Mr. Gladstone introduces his Home Rule Bill, Feb. 13.
Behring Sea arbitrators meet at Paris, March 23.
Liberator trial, March 27. Sentence on offenders.
Coup d'état in Servia, April 13. King Alexander usurps power.
Hull strike culminates in incendiarism, April 23.
Opening of the Chicago Exhibition, May 1.
Loss of the *Victoria* with 359 men, June 22.
France delivers ultimatum to Siam, July 20. Siamese coast blockaded, July 24. Ultimatum accepted, July 29. Second ultimatum accepted, Aug. 1.
Trouble in Brazil continues. Naval revolt, Sept. 7. Bombardment of Rio by insurgents begins, Sept. 13. Insurgents successful at Quarahy, Sept. 12.
Home Rule Bill rejected by House of Lords, Sept. 8.
Matabele war. Natives defeated near Thana Isenba, Sept. 16. Matabeles routed, Nov. 1. Buluwayo entered, Nov. 2. Lobengula defeated near the Shangani, Dec. 4.
Moors defeat Spaniards at Melilla, Oct. 27.
Anglo-French collision in Sierra Leone, Dec. 23.

1894.

Opening of Manchester ship canal, Jan. 1.
Demonstration against the House of Lords, Feb.
Retirement of Mr. Gladstone. Lord Rosebery succeeds.
Brazilian insurgents defeated, March 2. They surrender at Rio, March 14.
Cession of Pondoland to Great Britain, March 20.

Great Labour march on Washington, April 21.
Retention of Uganda announced, April 24.
Resignation of the Stambuloff Cabinet, May 29.
Dispute between China and Japan, June 13. Japan sends troops to Korea, occupying Seoul, June 26.
British demonstration in Transvaal against commandering, June 21. Lord Loch's visit to President Kruger.
Assassination of President Carnot, June 24. Casimir-Périer elected President.
Great railway strike at Chicago, July. Desperate fighting with mob and great destruction of property.
Hostilities between China and Japan in Corea, July 24. Chinese transport sunk, July 28. Japan officially notifies Foreign Powers of existence of war, Aug. 1.
Emperor William claims to rule by right divine, Sept. 6.
Japanese victories of Ping Yang and the Yalu, Sept. 16, 17. Chinese totally defeated on land and sea. Japanese advance northwards. They capture Port Arthur, Nov. 21.
Trouble in Madagascar announced, Sept. 20. French ultimatum rejected, Nov. 4. Expedition follows.
Lord Rosebery announces campaign against the House of Lords, Oct. 27.
Death of Alexander III., Nov. 1. Nicholas II. succeeds.
Arrest of Captain Dreyfus on charge of disclosing secret war documents to foreigners, Nov. 1. Trial, Dec. 19, Sentence, Dec. 22.
British attacked by Waziris at Wano, Nov. 3. Serious losses. Expedition follows.
Armenian massacres announced, Nov. 16. Further exposures. Great agitation follows.

1895.

Italians defeat Abyssinians, Jan. 13.
Death of Lord Randolph Churchill, Jan. 24.
Announcement of French defeat at the hands of Samory, Feb. 11.
Surrender of Wei-Hai-Wei to the Japanese, Feb. 13. Negotiations for peace. Newchang captured, March 4. Treaty of Shimonoseki, April 17. Protest by Russia, France and Germany leads to revision of treaty.
Chitral expedition. Malakand pass captured, April. Announcement of relief of Chitral, April 20.
Corinto in Nicaragua occupied by British, April 27. Dispute settled.
Nasrullah Khan, second son of the Ameer, visits England, May 24.
Kiel canal opened, June 21.
Liberal Government defeated, June 21. Resigns, June 22.
General election, July. Unionist majority 152. Lord Salisbury forms new Administration.
Assassination of M. Stambuloff, July 15.
Bechuanaland Annexation Bill passed by the Cape Assembly, Aug. 1.
British missionaries massacred at Ku-Cheng, Aug. 2. Ultimatum to China follows.
Pamir Delimitation Commission completes its work, Sept. 18.
French capture Antananarivo, Sept. 27.
Dispute with United States over Venezuelan frontier question, Oct. Settled by arbitration.
Italians totally defeated by the Abyssinians at Ambalagi. Dec. 7.
Fighting between Cretans and Turks, Dec. 12.
Dr. Jameson with 500 men raids the Transvaal, Dec. 29.

1896.

Defeat and surrender of Jameson with his whole force at Doornkop, Jan. 1. German Emperor's message congratulating President Kruger leads to much recrimination. Insurrection at Johannesburg ends, Jan. 7.
Siamese question settled between Great Britain and France, Jan. 15.
Ashanti expedition, Jan. Prempeh submits.
Cuban insurrection. General Weyler leaves for Cuba Jan. 25. Agitation in America. The United States House of Representatives passed resolution recognising Cuban insurgents as belligerants, March 2.
Italians totally defeated by Ayssinians at Adowa, March 1. Peace follows.
Matabele rebellion begins, Mareh 26. Whites massacred. Suppressed.
Olympic games opened in Athens, April 5.
Assassination of the Shah of Persia, May 1.
Coronation of Nicholas II. at Moscow, May 26. Disaster outside Moscow, 5000 persons crushed to death.
Soudan campaign. Battle of Firket. Dervishes defeated, June 7. Capture of Dongola, Sept. 20.
Continued fighting in Crete all July.
Trial of Dr. Jameson and his accomplices ends, July 28.
Trans-Siberian railway opened to Tomsk, Aug. 4. 200,000 persons emigrate to Siberia this year.
800 Greek volunteers leave for Crete, Aug. 16.
5000 Armenians massacred in Constantinople, Aug. 26.
Said Khalid having usurped the throne of Zanzibar, British fleet bombarded the palace, Aug. 27. Hamid-ben-Mahomed appointed Sultan.
Channel through the Iron Gates of the Danube opened by the Emperor Francis Joseph, Sept. 27.
Lord Rosebery resigns in October.
Armenian indignation meetings held throughout England, Oct. 1.
American Presidential Election. Mr. McKinley elected, Nov. 3.
Famine in India.
Cuban, Cretan and Philippine insurrections continue.

1897.

Massacre of British officials in Benin, Jan. 4. Expedition to avenge massacre successful.
General Arbitration Treaty between Great Britain and the United States signed at Washington, Jan. 11. Not ratified.
South African Committee meets in February. Reports, July 15.
Greece informs the Powers that she can no longer remain a spectator of events in Crete, Feb. 11. Expedition under Colonel Vassos.
Sir Alfred Milner appointed High Commissioner for South Africa, Feb. 15.
Greek troops reported concentrating on Turkish frontier. March 6. Greek irregulars attack Turks near Metsoro, April 9. Sultan declares war has broken out, April 18. Turks occupy Larissa, Greeks fleeing, April 25. Turks enter Velo, May 8. Armistice agreed upon, May 20.
United States annex Hawaii, June 16.
Diamond Jubilee celebrated.
Fighting on Indian frontier, July 26. Expedition follows.
King of Siam visits London, July 30.
Assassination of Senor Canovas del Castillo, Spanish Premier, Aug. 7.
President Faure visits St. Petersburg, Aug. 23. Russo-French rejoicings.
Peace signed between Turkey and Greece, Sept. 18.
Heavy fighting on N.W. frontier of India, Oct. 20. Battle of Dargai. Evacuation of Tirah, Dec. 8.
Railway opened to Buluwayo, Nov. 4.
Kiao Chau seized by Germany as a reprisal for murder of two German missionaries, Nov. 14.
German ultimatum to Hayti, Dec. 6. Accepted, Dec. 7.
Russian squadron enters Port Arthur, Dec. 19.
Kassala ceded to Egypt, Dec. 25.
Dreyfus case causes great agitation in France.

1898.

British Government through Mr. Balfour declares for the Open Door in China, Jan. 10.

Rebellion in Uganda.
President Kruger re-elected, Feb. 9.
Destruction of the *Maine* at Havana, Feb. 15. Clamour in America against Spain.
Trial and sentence on M. Zola, Feb. 23. Dreyfus agitation continues.
Niger dispute with France causes war-scare. Dispute settled.
Russian flag hoisted at Port Arthur and Talienwan, March 28. British acquire Wei-Hai-Wei.
Dervishes routed at Atbara, April 8.
United States Senate recognises Cuban Republic, April 16. Ultimatum to Spain, April 20. Battle of Manila, April 30. Spanish fleet destroyed. Americans land in Cuba, June 10. Battle of Caney, July 2. Cervera's fleet destroyed at Santiago, July 2. Spain asks for peace, July 26.
Death of Mr. Gladstone, May 19.
Serious Bread Riots in Italy in May. State of siege declared at Milan on the 7th.
Turks evacuate Thessaly, June 6.
British acquire further territory adjacent to Hong Kong, June 9.
Niger Convention signed with France, June 15.
Aguinaldo proclaims the Philippine Republic, July 7.
Death of Prince Bismarck, July 30.
Terms of peace between Spain and America published, Aug. 12.
Nicholas II. delivers his Peace Manifesto to the Powers, Aug. 24.
Dervishes totally defeated at Omdurman, Sept. 2. British and Egyptian flags hoisted at Khartoum, Sept. 4. Serious dispute with France over Fashoda followed. French Government agrees to withdrawal, Nov. 4.
Serious rioting at Candia, Sept. 6. British troops killed. Incident leads to demand for withdrawal of Turks.
Assassination of the Empress of Austria, Sept. 10.
Insults to Europeans in Pekin lead to despatch of Legation Guards, Oct. 1.
German Emperor visits Turkey, Oct. 18.
Court of Cassation pronounces for a re-trial of Dreyfus, Oct. 29.
Jubilee of the Emperor Francis Joseph celebrated, Dec. 2.
Treaty of Peace between United States and Spain signed in Paris, Dec. 10.
Serious famine in Russia during this winter and following spring.

1899.

Sir W. Harcourt resigns Opposition leadership, January. Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman elected as leader.
Peace Crusade in favour of the Tsar's proposals.
Aguinaldo issues a manifesto demanding Philippine independence, Jan. 7. Fighting with America all this year.
By Imperial decree the Russian language is made obligatory for high Finnish officials, Jan. 27. Other Russifying measures follow. Pro-Finnish agitation in Europe.
Italy demands a port in China, February. Refused.
Naval demonstration at Muscat owing to grant of coaling station to France, Feb. 14.
Sudden death of President Faure, Feb. 16. M. Loubet elected, Feb. 18.
Fighting in Samoa, March. British and Americans shell Mataafa's army, April 1. A British-American force was ambushed near Apia.
Mr. Rhodes visits the German Emperor at Berlin, March 11.
Students' revolt in Russia, March 31. St. Petersburg University closed to-day. All universities in Russia afterwards closed temporarily.
First elections to Irish County and District Councils, April 6.
Russo-English agreement as to China, May.
Friction between Canada and America as to Alaskan boundary, May.
Peace Conference meets at the Hague, May 18. Sits throughout June, and ends July 29. Chief result, formation of a permanent Arbitration Tribunal.
Bloemfontein Conference meets, June 1. Ends without agreement, June 5. War agitation begins.
Spain announces sale to Germany of Carolines and part of Ladrones, June 2.
Venezuela arbitration tribunal meets in Paris, June 15. Award delivered, Oct. 3.
Dreyfus returns to France, July 1.
Death of the Tsarevitch, July 10.
Japanese Courts assume jurisdiction over foreigners, July 17.
Old Age Pensions Committee report, July 26.
Sir Alfred Milner's despatch and a speech by Mr. Chamberlain lead to increased demand for war, August. Exodus from the Transvaal begins. Free State Raad decides to support Transvaal. Great anti-war speeches by Mr. Morley. War imminent.
Re-trial of Captain Dreyfus begins, Aug. 7. Dreyfus again convicted, Sept. 9. Anti-French demonstrations follow.
Fighting in Venezuela, Sept. 17. Insurgent success.
State Trials in Servia, Sept. 25. Heavy sentences cause indignation in Europe.
Transvaal war begins, Oct. 11. First fighting, Oct. 12. Battle of Talana Hill, Oct. 20. Battle of Elandslaagte, Oct. 21. Battle of Farquar's Farm and Nicholson's Nek—first British disaster, Oct. 30. Investment of Ladysmith follows. Battle of Belmont, Nov. 23. Battle of Graspan, Nov. 25. Battle of Modder River, Nov. 28. General Gatacre defeated at Stormberg, Dec. 10. Battle of Magersfontein, Dec. 12. Buller repulsed at Colenso; eleven guns lost, Dec. 15. Lord Roberts appointed Commander-in-Chief, Dec. 16.
Samoan Agreement announced, Nov. 8.
Final defeat of the Dervishes by Sir F. Wingate, Nov. 25. The Khalifa killed.
Terrible Famine in India.
Estimated population of United Kingdom, 40,559,954. Scotland, 4,281,850. Ireland, 4,535,516.

1900.

Seizure of German ships leads to incident with Germany, Jan.
Transvaal War. Great Boer attack on Ladysmith, Jan. 6. Fails. Battles of Spion Kop, Jan. 17–25. Vaal Krans, Feb. 8. Relief of Kimberley, Feb. 14. Surrender of General Cronje, Feb. 27. Relief of Ladysmith, Feb. 28. Surrender of Bloemfontein, March 13. Death of General Joubert reported, March 27. Botha succeeds. Koorn Spruit disaster, April 2. Relief of Mafeking, May 17. Johannesburg entered, May 30. Surrender of Pretoria, June 1. Fighting continues.
Tsar issues complimentary rescript to Count Muravieff, Jan. 13.
Capture of Osman Digna near Tokar, Jan. 19.
China. New heir to the throne nominated, Jan. 25.
Hay-Pauncefote Convention signed, Feb. 5.
Puerto Rican Tariff Bill passed by the United States House of Representatives, March 1. Agitation in America.
United States offer to mediate in the Transvaal war. March 13. Offer declined.
Delagoa Bay arbitrators publish award, March 19.
Queen visits Ireland, April 3.
Rebellion in Ashanti announced, April 9. Kumasi relieved, July 15. Further fighting.
Publication of Spion Kop despatches creates sensation, April 17.
Paris Exhibition opens, April 14.

Anti-foreign movement in China attracts attention, May 7. Guards for Pekin sent for from foreign warships, May 29. Boxers burn a station on the Pekin-Tientsin railway. Pekin cut off, June 4. Bombardment of the Taku forts, June 17. Heavy fighting at Tientsin. Native city taken, July 14. Advance to Pekin begins, Aug. 5. Relief, Aug. 15. Punitive expeditions follow, and fighting continues during negotiations for peace.
Controversy on the Australian Federation Bill, settled, June.
Death of Count Muravieff, June 21.
Tsar abolishes exile to Siberia, July 3.
Transvaal annexed by proclamation, July 4.
Assassination of the King of Italy, July 29.
Death of the Duke of Coburg, July 30.
Execution of Lieut. Cordua for conspiring to abduct Lord Roberts, Aug. 24.
Royal Proclamation announcing Federation of Australia, Sept. 18.
Dissolution of Parliament, Sept. 25. General Election gives Unionist majority of 134. Cabinet reconstructed with Lord Lansdowne as Foreign Minister.
Mr. McKinley re-elected in America.
Mr. Kruger visits Europe and is received with acclamation, November. Fighting continues in the Transvaal.
Outbreak of rebellion by Somalis announced, Nov.
Trans-Siberian railway opened to Stretensk.

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LABOUR LEADER AND REFORMER.
BORN 1858.

GEORGE JACOB HOLYOAKE.
PIONEER IN CO-OPERATION.
BORN 1817.

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QUEEN OF HOLLAND. BORN 1880.

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KING OF THE BELGIANS.
BORN 1835.

CHRISTIAN IX.
KING OF DENMARK. BORN 1818.

LEOPOLD I.
KING OF THE BELGIANS. 1790–1865.

SOVEREIGNS OF THE MINOR STATES.

SOME SOVEREIGNS AND PRESIDENTS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Great Britain.

George III., acceded Oct. 25, 1760 (Prince of Wales appointed Regent, Feb, 5, 1811).
George IV., acceded January 29, 1820.
William IV., acceded June 26, 1830.
Victoria, acceded June 20, 1837.

France.—Monarchy.

Bonaparte, became First Consul, Nov. 10, 1799. Consul for life, Aug. 2, 1802.
Napoleon I., proclaimed Emperor, May 18, 1804.
Louis XVIII., restored May 3, 1814. Napoleon returns to France, March 1, 1815, and abdicates June 22. Louis XVIII. re-enters Paris, July 3, 1815.
Charles X., acceded Sept. 16, 1824. Abdicated, Aug. 2, 1830.
Louis Philippe, accepted the Crown, Aug. 7, 1830.
Second Republic proclaimed, Feb. 26, 1848.
Louis Napoleon elected President, Dec. 11, 1848.
Napoleon III., proclaimed Dec. 2, 1852. Deposed, Sept. 4, 1870.

Presidents of Third Republic.

Committee of Public Defence, Sept. 4, 1870.
M. Thiers, elected President, Aug. 31, 1871.
Marshal MacMahon, elected May 24, 1873.
Jules Grévy, elected Jan. 30, 1879.
Marie F. S. Carnot, elected Dec. 3, 1887.
Jean Casimir Périer, elected June 27, 1894.
Félix Faure, elected Jan. 17, 1895.
Emile Loubet, elected Feb. 18, 1899.

Presidents of the United States of America.

John Adams, second President, elected Feb. 8, 1797.
Thomas Jefferson, elected Feb. 11, 1801 and 1805.
James Madison, elected Feb. 8, 1809 and 1813.
James Monroe, elected Feb. 12, 1817 and 1821.
John Quincy Adams, elected Feb. 9, 1825.
Andrew Jackson, elected Feb. 11, 1829 and 1833.
Martin van Buren, elected Feb. 8, 1837.
W. H. Harrison, elected Feb. 19, 1841.
John Tyler, acceded as Vice-President, April 4, 1841.
James Knox Polk, elected Feb. 12, 1845.
Zachary Taylor, elected Feb. 11, 1849.
Millard Fillmore, acceded as Vice-President, July 9, 1850.
Franklin Pierce, elected Feb. 9, 1853.
James Buchanan, elected Feb. 11, 1857.
Abraham Lincoln, elected Feb. 13, 1861 and 1865.
Andrew Johnson, acceded as Vice-President, April 15, 1895.
Ulysses Grant, elected Feb. 10, 1869 and 1873.
R. B. Hayes, elected March 3, 1877.
J. A. Garfield, elected Feb. 9, 1881.
C. A. Arthur, acceded, as Vice-President, Sept. 19, 1881.
Grover Cleveland, elected Feb. 11, 1885.
Benjamin Harrison, elected Feb. 13, 1889.
Grover Cleveland, elected Feb. 8, 1893.
William McKinley, elected March 4, 1807 and 1900.

Tsars of Russia.

Paul, acceded 1796
Alexander I., acceded March 24, 1801.
Nicholas I., acceded Dec. 1, 1825.
Alexander II., acceded March 2, 1855.
Alexander III., acceded March 13, 1881.
Nicholas II., acceded Nov. 1, 1894.

Rulers of Germany.

Frederick William III. of Prussia, acceded 1797.
Frederick William IV. of Prussia, acceded 1840.
William I. of Prussia (afterwards first German Emperor), acceded Jan. 2, 1861.
Frederick III., Emperor, acceded March 9, 1888.
William II., Emperor, acceded June 15, 1888.

Emperor-Kings of Austria-Hungary.

Francis II., acceded as Emperor of Germany, 1792. Became Francis I., first Emperor of Austria, Aug. 11, 1804.
Ferdinand I., acceded March 2, 1835.
Francis Joseph II., acceded Dec. 2, 1848.

Popes of Rome.

Pius VII., elected March 13, 1800.
Leo XII., elected Sept. 28, 1823.
Pius VIII., elected March 31, 1829.
Gregory XVI., elected Feb. 2, 1831.
Pius IX., elected June 16, 1846.
Leo XIII., elected Feb. 20, 1878.

GERMAN STATES
1863
Kingdom of Prussia
Boundary of the German Confederation
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
DENMARK
Helgoland (Br.)
HANOVER
MECKLENBURG
Berlin
Posen
Vistula
RUSSIA
BELGIUM
NETHERLANDS
ANHALT
Oder R.
SAXONY
Elbe
Rhine
Danube
FRANCE
BAVARIA
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
GALICIA
HUNGARY
AUSTRIA
SWITZERLAND
Luxemburg
WURTEMBERG
NORTH & SOUTH
GERMANY
1866
Kingdom of Prussia
North German Confed.
South Germany
EMPIRE OF
GERMANY
1871
Frontier of Germany
MILES
100
200
Helgoland
Sedan
Metz
LORRAINE
ALSACE
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
Vienna

OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOC

SOME TREATIES OF THE CENTURY.

Treaty of Luneville, Feb. 9, 1801.

Between the French Republic and the Emperor of Germany. Confirmed cessions made by Treaty of Campo Formio of Oct. 17, 1797; the Rhine as far as the Dutch territories to form the boundary of France; the Batavian, Helvetic, Ligurian and Cisalpine Republics recognised.

Treaty of Amiens, March 27, 1802.

Between Great Britain, France, Spain and Holland. England to surrender all her conquests except Trinidad, which is ceded to Spain; Ceylon is ceded to England by the Batavian Republic. France recognises the Republics of the Seven Ionian Islands. Malta to be restored to the Knights.

Coalitions against France.

Third Coalition, Aug. 5, 1805.

Between Great Britain, Austria, Russia, Sweden and Naples.

Fourth Coalition, Oct. 6, 1806.

Between Great Britain, Russia, Prussia and Saxony.

Fifth Coalition, April 9, 1809.

Between Great Britain and Austria.

Sixth Coalition, March 17, 1813.

Between Russia and Prussia, Austria. Great Britain to be invited to enter the Alliance.

Treaty of Presburg, Dec. 26, 1805.

Between France and Austria. Ancient States of Venice to be ceded to Italy; the principality of Eichstadt, part of the Bishopric of Passau, the city of Augsburg, the Tyrol, the Austrian possessions in Suabia, in Brisgau, and Ortenau to be transferred to the Elector of Bavaria and the Duke of Wurtemberg, who, with the Duke of Baden, were created kings by Napoleon. The independence of the Helvetic Republic also stipulated.

Treaty of Vienna, Oct. 14, 1809.

Between France and Austria. Austria to cede to France the Tyrol, Dalmatia, &c., which were afterwards united to France as the Illyrian Provinces. Austria to observe the prohibitory system adopted towards England by France and Russia.

Peace of Ghent, Dec. 24, 1814.

Between Great Britain and the United States. Provided for boundary commissions, but settled none of the questions which were the cause of the war.

First Peace of Paris, May 30, 1814.

Between France and the Allies, including Great Britain, Russia, Austria and Prussia. France to be reduced to the limits of 1792, with some additions. The independence of the Netherlands as enlarged to be recognised, also all German and Italian States and Switzerland. England to restore to France St. Lucia, Tobago, and the Isle de France, retaining Malta. The Allies to remit all claims for moneys in payment of supplies, &c. France to undertake to abolish the Slave Trade.

Second Peace of Paris, Nov. 20, 1815.

France to be reduced nearly to the limits of 1790, surrendering four frontier fortresses to the Germanic Confederation and Saarbrücken to Prussia. Her possessions in Savoy ceded to Sardinia. The fortress of Huningen to be demolished. Seventeen fortresses on the northern frontier to be garrisoned for five years by the Allies at the expense of France. An indemnity of 700,000,000 francs to be paid to the Allies. The art treasures taken by Napoleon to be restored to the countries owning them.

The Holy Alliance, Sept. 26, 1815.

Between the Emperors of Russia, Austria and the King of Prussia, who undertook ostensibly to be governed by Christian principles in all their political transactions with a view to perpetuating the peace. The Alliance was joined by France in 1818.

Treaty of Adrianople, Sept. 14, 1829.

Between Russia and Turkey. Russia to abandon almost all of her conquests in Turkey; Turkey to cede territory and fortresses on the sea-coast, free trade to Russia and free navigation of the Black Sea, Dardanelles and Danube, with control of part of the left bank. Turkey to recognise the independence of Greece.

Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi, July 8, 1833.

Between Russia and Turkey. Offensive and defensive alliance. Giving Russia right of passing the Straits.

Treaty of Nanking, Aug. 29, 1842.

Between Great Britain and China. Canton, Amoy, Shanghai, Foo-Chow-Foo and Ningpo to be opened to British trade, Hong Kong to be ceded to England, the Chinese to pay an indemnity of 21,000,000 dollars.

Treaty of Paris, March 30, 1856.

Between the Allies in the Crimea and Russia. The conquered territories to be reciprocally evacuated; Turkey to be admitted into the public law system of Europe; the Black Sea to be neutralised and thrown open to the mercantile marine of all nations, and forbidden to the flag of war of either of the Powers in possession of its coasts or of any other Power; Russia and Turkey to engage not to establish fortresses on the coast.

Treaty of Paris, April 1, 1856.

Between Great Britain, France, Austria, Russia, Prussia, Turkey and Sardinia. Privateering to be abolished, neutral ships carrying an enemy's goods not to be contraband of war; neutral goods not contraband to be free under an enemy's flag; blockades to be binding must be effective.

Treaty of Copenhagen, March 14, 1857.

For the abolition of the Sound Dues, the dues being capitalised at 30,476,325 rix dollars, of which the British Government paid as its proportion 10,126,855 rix dollars, or £1,125, 206.

Treaty of Tientsin, June 29, 1858.

Between Great Britain, France and China. Provides for freedom of trade, residence of ambassadors at both courts and toleration of Christianity. Indemnities to England and France, a revised tariff, the abolition of the term "barbarians" to designate Europeans. Four more ports opened, free navigation of rivers, and permission to foreigners to travel in China.

Treaty of Zurich, Nov. 10, 1859 (better known as the Peace of Villa Franca).

Between Austria and France. Lombardy to be ceded to Venetia; the formation of an Italian Confederation under the presidency of the Pope agreed upon; the rights of the ex-sovereigns of Tuscany, Modena, and Parma reserved. (Treaty became null by the formation of the kingdom of Italy in 1861.)

Treaty of Vienna, Oct. 30, 1864.

Between Austria, Prussia and Denmark. Denmark to renounce all rights to the Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenburg in favour of the Allies, who are to be free to dispose of the ceded territories as they deem fit.

Convention of Gastein, Aug. 14, 1865.

Between Austria and Prussia. Austria to have the temporary government of Holstein and Prussia that of Schleswig; the establishment of a German fleet was proposed with Kiel as a Federal harbour, held by Prussia; Lauenburg was absolutely ceded to Prussia, the king to pay Austria as compensation 2,500,000 Danish dollars. Abrogated in 1866.

Treaty of Prague, Aug. 23, 1866.

Between Prussia and Austria. The Germanic Confederation to be dissolved. Prussia to annex Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and Frankfort. Austria to give up Holstein and her political influence in North Germany, and North Schleswig to Denmark if the people should vote for it (this provision not carried out).

Treaty of Vienna, Oct. 3, 1866.

Between Austria and Italy. Austria to recognise the Kingdom of Italy, and to agree to its union with Venetia.

Treaty of Frankfort, May 10, 1871.

Between France and Germany. France to cede parts of Lorraine, including Metz and Thionville, and Alsace less Belfort, and to pay an indemnity of five milliards of francs or £200,000,000.

Treaty of San Stefano, March 3, 1878.

Between Russia and Turkey.

Montenegro to be independent and to have her territory extended.

Servia to be independent and to have her territory extended.

Roumania to be independent and to have an indemnity.

Bulgaria from the Danube to the Ægean to be an autonomous tributary principality, with a Christian Government and a national militia. A Prince to be elected by the population confirmed by Porte with consent of Powers. Imperial Russian Commissioner will superintend new system for two years, during which time Russian army of 50,000 men will remain in country.

Bosnia and Herzegovina to have reforms demanded by Constantinople Conference.

Crete and European provinces to have local organic statutes framed by special Commissioners in which native population is largely represented.

Armenia to have improvements and reforms demanded by local requirements and Porte undertakes to guarantee Armenians security from Kurds and Circassians.

War indemnity, 1,410,000,000 roubles = £150,000,000 of which £120,000,000 shall be paid in land, viz., the Dobrudscha which will be given to Roumania in exchange for Russian strip of Bessarabia ceded in 1856, and Ardahan, Kars and Batoum, and Bayazid and territory as far as the Saganlough. The remaining £30,000,000 to be paid in cash by arrangement.

Bosphorus and Dardanelles to be open in war and peace to neutral merchantmen bound for Russian ports.

European Turkey to be evacuated in three months. Turkey in Asia in six, and Bulgaria in two years.

Treaty of Berlin, July 13, 1878.

Between Germany, Russia, Turkey, Great Britain, Austria, France, and Italy.

Bulgaria to be autonomous, subject to the Sultan's suzerainty, and to be cut off from the Ægean and to be divided into three portions: (1) a principality north of the Balkans which may be garrisoned by Turkish troops; (2) the province of Eastern Roumelia partly autonomous, with a Christian governor; (3) Macedonia thrust back under the direct rule of the Sultan; Russian army of occupation to remain nine months. Bosnia and Herzegovina to be occupied and administered by Austria. Montenegro and Servia to be independent, with new frontiers. Roumania to be independent. Navigation of the Danube to be regulated. Reforms in Crete. Russia to have Ardahan, Kars, and Batoum; the last to be a free port. The Porte advised to cede Epirus and Thessaly to Greece. The Porte to undertake legal reforms and grant religious liberty. The Treaty of Paris to be maintained where not modified by this treaty.

Convention of Pretoria, Aug. 3, 1881.

Between Great Britain and the Transvaal. Great Britain to recognise the independence of the Transvaal subject to the suzerainty of the Queen and a British Resident. Independence of the Zulus guaranteed. (Abrogated Feb. 27, 1884.)

Convention of London, Feb. 27, 1884.

Between Great Britain and the Transvaal. Transvaal to be entirely independent as the South African Republic, subject to a clause providing for submission of all treaties with foreign Powers (except the Orange Free State) to the British Government, which might only veto them if they contained clauses prejudicial to British interests. The boundaries amended.

The Triple Alliance, March 13, 1887. Renewed. June 28, 1891.

Between Germany, Austria, and Italy defensive.

Treaty between France and Russia, proclaimed, 1897.

By which either state undertook to defend the other if it were attacked by two Powers.

Treaty of Shimonoseki, April 17, 1895.

Between Japan and China. China to recognise the independence of Corea; Formosa, the Pescadores, and Port Arthur to be ceded and Wei-Hai-Wei occupied pending payment of indemity of £33,000,000 and execution of treaty. Treaty modified by relinquishment of Port Arthur under pressure from Russia, Germany and France.

Treaty of Paris, Dec. 10, 1898.

Between the United States and Spain. Spain to relinquish Cuba, cede Puerto Rico, and sell the Philippines to the United States for £5,000,000.

Gold Medal Awarded, Woman's Exhibition, London, 1900.

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In answer to the requests of many of our readers, we have issued this month several very fine reproductions of beautiful paintings in a large size—sufficiently large to be effective and decorative when properly framed and hung in any apartment. We have five of these pictures ready, and others will follow from time to time. These collotypes are almost artistically reproduced for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS by a firm of art printers in this country whose reputation for such work is deservedly high, and we are perfectly sure that many who have expressed their delight with the Shilling Portfolios will be equally charmed with these larger and more effective pictures. There are five subjects ready, any one of which can be sent in a cardboard tube, post free to any address in the world, for half-a-crown. Those published include: "The Fighting Temeraire," by J. M. W. Turner, R.A., size 25 in. by 20 in.; "Blossoms," by Albert Moore (reproduced here in a smaller size), 28 in. by 12 in.; "A Summer Shower," by C. E. Perugini, size, 25 in. by 20 in. (reproduced as the frontispiece to this magazine); "Spring in the Austrian Tyrol," by J. MacWhirter, R.A., size, 25 in. by 20 in.; and "Britannia's Realm," by John Brett, A.R.A., size, 25 in. by 14 in. Then we have also "The Cherub Choir," by Sir Joshua Reynolds, which can also be sent to any address for 2s. 6d., post free.

We may remind our readers, as this is the last issue of the present volume—the last, indeed, of the century—of the offer made in the November issue, viz., that if any one will send us a special subscription of 10s. 6d., instead of 8s. 6d., for the supply of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS direct by post during the year 1901, we shall send, not the magazine alone, but immediately on receipt of the remittance of 10s. 6d., the following pictures as a premium:—

The Fighting "Temeraire." By J. M. W. Turner, R.A. Size, 25 in. by 20 in.
Britannia's Realm. By John Brett, A.R.A. Size, 23 in. by 11 in.
May Blossoms. By Albert Moore. Size about 18 in. by 7 in.
The Cherub Choir. By Sir Joshua Reynolds. Size, 10 in. by 13½ in.

And there was a second suggestion, which is also repeated for the benefit of those who did not see the first announcement. It was this:—Any person who will take the trouble to enlist FIVE NEW ANNUAL SUBSCRIBERS to this magazine at 8s. 6d. each, and will send their full postal addresses together with a Post Office money order for TWO GUINEAS, will thereupon receive by post, as a free gift, the following collection of ten pictures, which if purchased elsewhere would cost about a pound, while the magazine will be posted direct for one year to the five persons whose subscriptions have been so collected:—

The Fighting "Temeraire." By J. M. W. Turner, R.A. Size, 25 in. by 20 in. (See next page.)
Britannia's Realm. By John Brett, A.R.A. Size, 23 in. by 11 in.
Spring in the Austrian Tyrol. By J. MacWhirter, R.A. Size, 25 in. by 20 in.
May Blossoms. By Albert Moore. Size, 28 in. by 12 in.
A Summer Shower. By C. E. Perugini. Size, 25 in. by 20 in.
The Cherub Choir. By Sir Joshua Reynolds. Size, 16 in. by 13½ in.
The Golden Stairs. By Sir Edward Burne-Jones. Size, 19 in. by 9 in.
The Dresden Madonna. By Raphael. Size, 12 in. by 10 in.
Venice. By J. M. W. Turner, R.A. Size, 14 in. by 8½ in.
The Princess of Wales. By Edward Hughes. Size, 15 in. by 10½ in.

All orders for subscriptions or pictures should be addressed to the Manager, REVIEW OF REVIEWS Office, Mowbray House, Norfolk Street, London, W.C.

28 in. by 12 in.] [2s. 6d.

Blossoms.
BY ALBERT MOORE.

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